The Education Digest

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Recovering a Fumble Is Important, Not Who Made It

The Uses of Detraction

L. D. HASKEW

In Phi Delta Kappan

SHAKESPEARE usually has a word for it. Two "words" this time. "To be traduced by ignorant tongues is the rough brake that virtue must go through." And then, "Happy are they who can hear their detractions, and can put them to mending."

If being put through the rough brake by ignorant (or deluded) men is a testimony to virtue, professional teacher education in mid-twentieth century can feel certain it is pristine in purity. But the real test of the caliber of those responsible both for speaking and for hearing detractions is whether they can be put to mending.

Some detractions cannot be put to mending. They cannot be put to destruction, either. Denunciations based on nonexistent stereotypes, or on the fundamental desire to dictate the creation of an authoritarian social order are typically aimed at destruction of professional teacher education entirely—the only cure for the patient is a funeral. America has witnessed five years of such detractions. Constructive use of them is next to impossible. But by now it is fairly apparent that their destructive power is very small. Professional education for teachers today is perhaps stronger, more vital, and better established than at any time in its history.

L. D. Haskew is Dean, College of Education, University of Texas, Austin. Reported from Phi Delta Kappan, *XL* (*December* 1958), 115–18.

This is no Pollyanna conclusion. Lies and defamations always hurt. When they rest on fallacies or fantasies, however, they may sell books and throw limelight on Controversial Figures, but they seem to lack disintegrative power. At least, that is true so far. Detractions of this order deserve refutation, but I prefer to put my time and energy into catching fish rather than fighting mosquitoes.

Detractions which can be used for mending are far more numerous than those which cannot. Even

when the intent of the detraction is to scapegoat or merely find fault with the inevitabilities of life, it may be used frequently to spark a much needed improvement. However, there are some facts that detractors should know about those of us who engage in trying to build high-quality professional education for teachers. One of these is that the "discovery" that the education of teachers is imperfect is not headline news to us. In the past 50 years we have devoted more time and energy to proclaiming imperfections than the detractors can ever get around to. Strangely enough, most of the imperfections we know about—and which the detractors have "discovered"—are directly traceable to the lack of the kind of interest many of the most thoughtful detractors are now displaying.

But it also should be added that most professional teacher educators are quite pleased with the American way of life, with the American public-school system, and with what it has accomplished and is accomplishing. They know that school system better than most of its detractors; they know faults, but they know strengths also. Freely accepting the fact that the schools, and the teachers in them, have weaknesses, they are still confident that the strengths of the entire public-school system so far outweigh the weaknesses that any of them would welcome the judgment of history that he is responsible for the fruits produced. And, by every instinct of fair play, your educationist is going to refuse to be saddled with the weaknesses without being credited with the strengths.

This point is important. Those concerned professionally with teacher education are concerned primarily with improving an organism they view with great affection, but not blind affection. Persons who want to work with them effectively and constructively do not open the door to cooperation by ignorant or unwarranted attacks on the offspring itself. Improving what exists offers a common ground for rewarding labor; proposing to destroy what exists offers a battleground for frustrating collision.

With common ground to stand on, those who are genuinely interested in the improvement of teacher education have channels rapidly opening up through which they can get much-needed action in the practice of educating teachers. The National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education, now firmly established, is wide open to proposals to raise the standards of colleges approved for teacher-educating purposes. In practically every state, certification regulations are being examined by commissions or advisory councils representing a widespread cross-section of educational interests. The National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards of the National Education Association is in the midst

of a concerted effort to bring academicians and professional educators into close relationship in a genuine study of the "how to's" in teacher education. The Council on Cooperation in Teacher Education of the American Council on Education is offering a meeting-place for representatives of the learned societies and representatives of professional teacher education. The American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education and its allied organizations are furnishing an opportunity for stimulating interchange and creative revolution in colleges of all varieties and philosophies. These are only a few of the channels for cooperation open at national and state levels.

At the local level, the university-wide or college-wide "Council on Teacher Education" is rapidly becoming the typical control mechanism for programs of teacher education. Drawn from all academic fields—including education—these councils are recording some startling achievements in curriculum design, recruitment, and teaching procedures. They are also opening direct channels of communication and influence between college departments dealing with subject-matter areas and teachers of the same subject matter in high schools and elementary schools. Experimental and demonstration projects for new approaches to teacher education are increasingly easy to organize and to finance, offering vehicles for cooperative endeavor. That largely mythical "closed corporation" reputed to be in control of teacher education is now at least an open-stock company. The shares are available to those who want to buy in. The price, usually, is a desire to provide constructive effort.

SHARED CONVICTIONS

Channels such as those named can be used effectively, I propose, when the persons involved proceed on the basis of commonly-shared convictions. The first of these convictions is commitment to an adequate definition of professional teacher education. Stripped of the complexities involved in post-employment aspects, professional teacher education for undergraduates in college can be defined as a total curriculum designed carefully and specifically to produce beginners who can perform at least satisfactorily all the obligations of teachers in elementary or secondary schools. This simple definition forces an open-minded, careful scrutiny of what those obligations really are. It destroys the notion that teachers are educated by Education alone. It necessitates painstaking design which leaves as little as possible to chance, and is concerned with both content and procedures. At the same time, it means that several routes to a satisfactory teacher are open, but it does not mean that teacher education is some amorphous collection of miscellaneous credits. It is education planned on purpose. And it must produce a teacher with a broad command of knowledge.

1959

The conviction that *a person* is the focal point of teacher education is another basic element in "putting detractions to mending." That person is the student who is going to teach. His name is legion, and must remain legion if the children of America are to have teachers. If we could count on staffing our schools with the 10 or 15 percent of college students who can learn quickly to do almost anything well, the strategy of teacher education could perhaps be left largely to college catalog writers. When we are dealing with 30 to 40 percent of all college students, distributed fairly well across the spectrums of ability and personality, we must have focus on the person. Identification, selection, and recruitment are important. Even more important, however, are curriculum procedures which make telling contact between the demands of a profession and the prospective practitioner.

The final conviction that also must be one of those commonly shared is that the education curriculum has much to offer in the development of prospective teachers, even though it falls considerably short of its potential at the present time. Parenthetically, the same statement could be made about so-called general education and subject-specialization education, but that is not the point I want to make now. Those who teach education deal with essential elements of subject matter—the human individual and his behavior, the varied goals of society and their translation into the school as an institution, values and value-scales, the alternative goals for the institution of schooling—to name a few. They deal with processes of learning and processes of teaching. They deal with teaching as it is, and could be, practiced. Strategic matters, all; how they could be dispensed with in the education of teachers is difficult to envision.

To claim that these matters are dealt with satisfactorily, however, is—on the campuses that I know—to live in a dream world. The fact—and I believe firmly that it is one—that a large number of education departments are getting much better results than they are credited with still does not meet the issue. The issue can be met, and should be met, by dramatic improvement in doing what education departments have the opportunity to do. This is no Utopian dream. If space permitted, numerous examples could be cited to show that education *can* seize opportunity, *is* on the march toward higher levels of accomplishment.

We have spoken here of finding fault and faulting finders of fault. But this author has been preoccupied with something beyond either—the possibility of both uttering and hearing detractions and, with statesmanship, put them to mending. The mending is the only matter of real importance. I have always been more interested in who recovered a fumble than in who made it. •

What Are Its Three Major Functions?

Adult Education for Our Time

ROBERT J. HAVIGHURST

In Adult Leadership

IN thinking about adult education for our particular time and place in history, it is useful to examine the man who is to be educated. What is there about him that may give us clues to a proper adult education. Twentieth-century man has three characteristics which distinguish him from his predecessors and make it necessary for him to seek education all of his life.

First, he has an open horizon. He sees himself as living in a world with endless possibilities. He sees no limit to the world in space and time. Second, modern man trusts his own judgment rather than supernatural authority. He continually widens the sphere of things which he conceives to be subject to the discoverable laws of nature. He continually brings larger and larger segments of human life under the domain of human planning and organization. And, third, twentieth-century man is constructively worried. Faced with the terrifying visible possibility that mankind can destroy itself with deadly radiation, having experienced two disastrous world wars within one generation, he no longer believes in the inevitability of progress. Instead, he believes that the future of mankind depends on the wisdom and goodness of men like himself. Men like himself must either fail or succeed in making a good world. There is no natural law of an improving world.

Robert J. Havighurst is Professor of Education at the University of Chicago, Illinois. *Reported from* Adult Leadership, *VII* (*December* 1958), 160–63, 178.

These three characteristics have never been combined in so many people as they are today. In the past, a few people have had one or another of the three traits; even all three of them were combined in rare individuals. Today these traits are seen in enough people, and enough ordinary people, to make this kind of person a force in the world.

This kind of person cannot believe that his education was completed once and for all time at the close of his adolescence. He cannot think of education as only a period of learning or preparation for an adulthood during which one spends one's store of knowledge.

In this twentieth-century world, the ordinary person has to learn more new things *after* the age of 20 than ever before in human history. People of all levels of economic life need to go on learning new things as adults. Not only the research scientist who makes a ca-

reer of learning new things, but also the garage mechanic who must always be learning the latest in automobile bodies and motors, the assembly line worker who must learn a new assembly job at least once a year, the farmer who must learn to use new machines and new varieties of seed, and the housewife who must learn how to use a new floor wax or a new kitchen machine or how to cook foods conserved by a new process.

In this modern and changing society there are three major functions of adult education: (1) education for personal competence; (2) education for civic competence; and (3) education for joy in living.

"MOOD" FOLLOWS FUNCTION

There is a certain mood appropriate to each function. That is, one approaches the task of learning in a certain frame of mind appropriate to the function. For the function of education for personal competence, the mood is that of objectivity and competence. Every person has the task of becoming and maintaining himself as a competent person in his society. In our society this requires continuous learning. Adult education, in this mood, is a business-like affair of providing the situation in which the adult goes on learning things which make him a more competent worker, parent, spouse, and homemaker.

There is usually no problem of motivating people to want to be competent in these four roles. The "felt need" (motivation) is high. In this area of personal competence, therefore, the adult educator can count on a considerable demand for his offerings. If this were the whole of adult education, the task of the adult educator would be rather simple. But the other two aspects are not as simple to analyze and to manage, although for many educators they are the most important parts of the enterprise.

The role of citizen has a different status in the feelings of people than the roles of parent, spouse, worker, and homemaker. It has a lesser impact on the person. Our society does not pass a severe judgment on people who are indifferent citizens. There is no sanction of public opinion to make a person feel guilty if he fails to vote regularly and there is even less force of public opinion to make a person feel responsible for being informed on the issues at stake in an election.

This is clearly an educational problem. And just more formal education for everybody is not the answer to our need. We need a program of adult education for our time and our situation. And if adult education is to succeed with this task it must somehow affect the great majority of people, not just a faithful few.

What does the American need to be worthy of his role of citizenship? He needs: (1) a faith in democracy; (2) knowledge of the whole

world and its forces; (3) desire to make democracy work in this modern world. Nobody can qualify for this description solely on the basis of what he learns up to high-school graduation, or even up to college graduation.

Adult education must face the fact that the quality of American citizenship has not been improving. During the past decade the gap between the duty of the American citizen and his performance has been growing wider. This has been a decade in which our public leaders have been weak or inept, both in and out of public office. They have failed to show us the way to preserve democracy at home and to solve the problems of international relations. As a substitute for the slow and careful labor of the good citizen, we have tried to make ourselves impregnable. Strength, both military and economic, has become our national goal.

But adult education should be against this kind of emphasis on strength. The decade of the 1960's will be a better decade only if people seek justice and democracy rather than mere strength. This will only happen if we have an effective program of adult education.

MORAL AND INTELLECTUAL

In other words, the content of adult education in this area must be moral as well as intellectual. To be an American may once again become a moral ambition. Americans always have the moral ambition to be good parents and good workers. Adult education should help them develop the moral ambition to be good citizens.

It would not do to stop here, in discussing adult education for citizenship, without mentioning the greatest resource we have in the U.S.A. for citizenship. Women between the ages of 40 and 70 are an especially good target group for adult education aimed at improving citizenship, as we already know from the work of such organizations as the League of Women Voters and the American Association of University Women.

The third mood in which we may approach adult education is the mood of enjoyment, curiosity, and creativity. This is the mood of the abundant life. There would be no great value in adult education for personal competence and for social reform if these did not result in a society where people can enjoy life—where people have the leisure, the material means, and the attitudes that enable them to live joyfully.

We live in an economy of abundance, because we have learned to produce material goods efficiently. We hope to live in a world of peace, when we have learned how to conduct the political affairs of the world peacefully. We live in a world where leisure has become the property of the common man. And leisure is no longer simply rest, or absence of work. Leisure is recognized as a time with great po-

tential for enjoying life. Education for leisure is education for enjoyment of life.

Education for enjoyment of leisure may well become one of the really pressing concerns of our society in the future, just as education to produce enough nurses, doctors, engineers, and research scientists is a pressing concern of the present decade. The notion of education for joy in living must be broad and flexible. Much of the best of it will be self-taught, through reading, listening, and observing. Theaters, orchestras, libraries, journals, museums, and television are educative agents, fully as much as organized classes.

In contrast with education for personal competence as worker or parent, education for enjoyment of life is more important for people past the age of 40 than for people under 40. More and more of the satisfaction of middle-aged and older people will depend on their use of leisure.

The most successful participants in adult education for enjoyment are those who have had a history of enjoying life. In the studies of what people get out of their leisure, it is clear that leisure activities are a projection of a person's personality. People are most completely "themselves" in their leisure, except for a lucky group who have found work that fully expresses their personality. The adult program for people who know what they want from leisure can simply follow their desires.

On the other hand, for those who do not know how to enjoy life, adult education should take on a therapeutic aspect. People of this sort need to be helped to taste the fruits of well-spent leisure, to become convinced that they can enjoy life if they make the effort and are taught to enjoy it.

Hence, the adult educator who wants to help people enjoy life will find himself teaching the art of friendship to people who do not know how to make friends. He will help people to express themselves in the arts, when they have hitherto been thoroughly inhibited. He will encourage people to make things with their hands who have never known creative activity. He will help people plan to travel who have never before enjoyed travel. He will try to interest people in gardening who have never grown flowers before.

To fit the second half of the twentieth century, adult education must be an enterprise of such variety that it will meet the needs which people feel keenly for personal competence while it also makes people aware of their need for civic competence. It must help people do better in the existing society, while at the same time they are making a better society.

And it must have such a variety of moods that some people can find sheer enjoyment in certain kinds of adult education, while other people pursue other kinds of education to meet the practical and societal needs of the time. •

The Lure of Alaska Attracts Teachers

Schools in Our 49th State

CAROLYN H. PLANCK

In NEA Journal

WHAT will statehood mean to Alaskan schools? While it is expected that existing territorial laws will remain in effect so that schools will continue much as usual, the status of statehood itself already is making a big psychological difference.

But statehood, of course, cannot change the basic conditions affecting operation of the schools. If the Alaskan school map were superimposed on a map of the other states, school locations would extend from North Dakota to Texas, from California to South Carolina. Much of this area is isolated from direct service by land or water transportation and must be served by air. Wide variations in terrain and climate also affect the construction and operation of schools.

Alaska's dual school system is a result of these conditions. The Alaska Native Service (ANS), under the Bureau of Indian Affairs, operates 84 schools; the Alaska Department of Education operates 105 schools and supervises 28 organized independent school districts, having one or more schools each. Anchorage is the largest school district populationwise, enrolling 10,000 pupils. About three-fourths of the territorial schools are rural and range from one-room schools with enrolments as low as eight to those enrolling more than 450 from kindergarten through 12th grade.

Carolyn H. Planck, a former member of the staff of the NEA Journal, *now lives in Alaska. Reported from* NEA Journal, *XLVII (December* 1958), 600–02.

Where there are fewer than eight school-age children, the territory has provided correspondence courses, if a local supervisor with reasonable educational background is available. Usually one of the mothers can so qualify.

Alaska also has about 20 private and denominational schools, from one-room schools to those with full high-school programs. And for children too isolated to reach a day school, ANS maintains two boarding schools. This fall, nearly 1000 youngsters were transported, mostly by plane and some from points about 2000 miles away to the school for elementary pupils at Wrangell and to the only all-native high school at Mount Edgecumbe, both in southeast Alaska.

Schools on military bases are operated by the Alaska Department of Education but they are financed completely by the federal government. Unique, perhaps, of all on-base schools is the one at Whittier,

where annual snowfall may range from 20 to 35 feet and where the school is built against a glacier-topped mountain of solid rock. Whittier, port of entry for all military supplies for Alaska, is a city completely contained in three huge buildings. One of the three is a 14-story apartment house for married officers and their families. A tunnel connects this building with the school so that teachers and pupils come and go without boots or parkas. However, they do experience the exasperation of elevator bottlenecks!

The lure of Alaska has helped to make the teacher shortage less acute than in the other states. Edna Knotts, who taught in the Anchorage High School last year as an exchange teacher from Los Angeles, describes Alaska's appeal this way:

I fell in love with the territory in three summer visits, and then I wanted more than anything to spend a winter in Alaska, fervently hoping it would be very snowy and wintry. To my great disappointment, it was an extremely mild winter, with never more than six or seven inches of snow at one time.

I would most certainly recommend Alaska as an exchange post for other teachers. It offers the exhilaration of a change of scene, a different way of life, and limitless possibilities for new friendships. Alaska schools are at least equal to those in other states; in many ways they are superior. Students who have attended Alaska schools seem unusually well grounded in such fundamentals as spelling and writing.

True, the exchange teacher who comes on her regular salary will be at a certain disadvantage monetarily, but unless she is at the lower end of the salary scale, this will not result in any hardship.

Judging by the Anchorage system this year, fear of living costs is no serious deterrent to teachers from "outside." Among the 109 new employes there, 71 come from 27 states in the continental U. S., one couple from Guam.

SALARIES EQUALIZED

Civil services sets salaries in on-base and ANS schools. Territorial law sets other minimum salaries, and an attempt to equalize salaries and living costs in different areas is made by varying the minimum according to judicial divisions whose boundaries take into account distinct geographical differences. For example, in the first judicial division (southeastern Alaska), minimum salaries range from $4500 to $6900. In the third (the Alaska and Kenai peninsulas), from $4900 to $7300. In the second and fourth (interior Alaska including Fairbanks and Nome), from $5200 to $7600. School boards, of course, may pay more than the minimum, and many districts are bettering it by from $500 to $1000. Salaries of superintendents range from a minimum of $5300 in the first judicial district to a maximum of $9400 in the fourth. Principals receive at least $600 above what would be their base pay as teachers.

Membership in the Alaska

Teachers' Retirement System is a condition of contract for all except those who will be unable to complete 25 years of service before they are 65. Ten years of stateside service may be credited toward retirement. The teacher contributes a sum up to 5 percent of his base salary, but not in excess of $300. Under the new constitution, the accrued benefits of employe retirement systems "shall not be diminished or impaired."

Facilities for higher education in Alaska are centered at the University of Alaska at College, near Fairbanks. First noted for its school of mines, the University now offers work in many other departments. Summer sessions emphasize education courses.

Educators in Alaska have been concerned with what they have termed "the *real* problem of teacher shortage." By this they meant the inadequate number of Alaskans who were preparing to teach in the territory. Only 18 of the new teachers needed for territorial schools in 1955-56 were prepared in Alaska, it was pointed out. This could be blamed, it was believed, on the general failure of Alaska's high-school graduates to go on to college and to enter teacher training. And of the high-school graduates who do go on to college many, of course, go "outside."

One remedy proposed is to offer greater opportunities for professional advancement. In the 29 years since the University established its department of education, it was noted, only one graduate had moved up to an administrative post—that of elementary principal. Currently, this situation shows some improvement. This year the University gave seven master's degrees in education to teachers, several of whom had already held administrative positions.

In the ANS schools, employment of qualified native graduates, at least at the teacher and/or assistant level, is a continuing policy. In 1954, an Anchorage paper commented favorably on the "big way" the talents of the Eskimo, Aleut, and Indian people were being put back into the services of education. •

U. S. Office of Education figures released in January show 36,418 pupils enrolled in public schools in Alaska at the beginning of the current school year. A total of 1,591 classroom teachers are employed in the new state, the figures show. Even in Alaska there is a shortage of classrooms. The Office of Education figures show a total shortage of 279 instruction rooms, 174 needed to accommodate excess enrolment and 105 to replace unsatisfactory facilities. A total of 169 instruction rooms are scheduled for completion this year.

The Promise of a New Direction

The Advanced Placement Program

DAVID A. DUDLEY

In The Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals

THE interest of the secondary schools in the Advanced Placement Program is apparent in the remarkable increase in the number of schools represented by our examinees. From an experimental 18 and 38 schools financed by the Fund for the Advancement of Education in 1954 and 1955, respectively, the number of schools has grown to 100, 200, and 350 in 1956-57-58, the years in which the College Entrance Examination Board has administered the program. In May, 1957, there were 2000 students who took 3700 Advanced Placement examinations. A year later, 3700 students took 6900 examinations. These students fanned out to perhaps 300 colleges in the fall of 1958.

The Advanced Placement Program is a sound and a long-range movement. It has been received well by educators because it answers a need, because it is conservative at the same time that it is new, and because it is a normal growth in the evolution of American education. In the past half-century in the United States, we have achieved the comprehensive high school; we have approached our goal of 12 years of educational opportunity for all who want it or can benefit from it. Without relinquishing our Jacksonian gains, however, we can now turn again to a Jeffersonian ideal which allows for differences among abilities and offers opportunities according to capabilities and ambitions, with more attention than we, perhaps, have been giving in the immediate past to our very best students.

David A. Dudley was 1957-58 *Director of the College Entrance Examination Board's Advanced Placement Program. Reported from* The Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, *XLII* (*December* 1958), 1–5.

The basic philosophy of the Advanced Placement Program is simply that all students are not created equal. The more mature level of study and discussion and examination demanded in the Advanced Placement classes provides the stimulus which our superior students need if they are to receive the education best suited to their high potential—for the very fast student, like the very slow student, needs a pace different from the average.

The College Board's Advanced Placement Program syllabus provides course outlines in 11 subject areas: American history, biology, chemistry, European history,

French 4, German 3 and 4, Latin 4 and 5, literature and English composition, mathematics (calculus and analytic geometry), physics, and Spanish 3. Each syllabus is written by committees of three college professors and two secondary-school teachers, the same committees which also write the College Board's Advanced Placement examinations.

EXAMINATIONS

The courses are college-level courses, and the May examinations are three-hour examinations of the quality given by college professors as final examinations at the freshman-sophomore levels. The examinations are for the most part essay examinations—there is an hour of objective testing in some, and a half-hour of tape for the modern languages. In the construction of its examination, each committee of College Board examiners is assisted by a test consultant from the Educational Testing Service; and it is Educational Testing Service (E.T.S.), also, which administers the examination for the College Board and appoints the readers for the examinations. There is always overlapping of personnel between the reading and the examination committees to insure easy communication between the two groups. Each Chief Reader, for example, is a member of his Examination Committee or sits with it *ex-officio*.

In June the papers are read at a central reading site and under the supervision of a Director of Reading. The grading is on a college-level scale of 5, 4, 3, 2, 1, defined as high honor, honor, creditable, passing, and failure. College students—about 600 of them in 1958—have been asked to take the examinations along with the regular high-school students, and the college papers have served as points of reference in establishing standards. In the summer, E.T.S. sends to the college to which the student has been admitted the following materials for each subject: a student's examination grade, an interpretation of the grade, the examination questions, the student's course outline as submitted by the school, the school recommendation concerning the student, and the examination paper itself for the instructors at the college to reread if they wish to do so. Each college, therefore, may base its decision concerning each student on a great deal more than merely the examination grade alone.

COOPERATION GOOD

The cooperation of the colleges has been good. Some of the colleges, as might be expected, have been slow in realizing the values of the program to themselves and to the common educational effort; but on the whole the college response has been most encouraging.

It is wise—and essential in the long run, of course—for the colleges to give their wholehearted backing to the program. The Advanced Placement movement will bring to the colleges abler students,

better prepared to do richer and more advanced work in the college years; it is a means whereby school and college teachers may work together to strengthen American education. And the program must have the nourishing support of the colleges if the schools are to make their extra effort at truly college-level heights.

In the spring of 1958, a survey of 360 colleges indicated 150 colleges were granting appropriate placement to students who had taken Advanced Placement courses and who had performed creditably on the College Board's Advanced Placement examination. Of the 360 colleges, 210 gave academic credit as well as placement. Some of these 210 colleges, to be sure, placed restrictions on the amount of college credit that could be earned in high school, but most allowed credit without limit. Happily, among the earliest and firmest supporters of the program are many of the outstanding colleges and universities in the country.

Of the 150 colleges now giving placement only, without the award of credit, many will surely add the award of credit in a very few years. The program is still a new one, and the idea is a new one to many college faculties. Only a few colleges, after all, have had students in sufficient quantity for their impact to be felt to a large degree; for, although it may be written proudly that seven colleges received more than 50 Advanced Placement students each in the fall of 1957, it must be modestly admitted that only 33 colleges received as many as 10 students each in that year.

Some of the newer colleges in the program, jealous of their standards, have approached the students cautiously. They will gain confidence in the program as they observe the quality of the College Board standards and student performance, as they become aware of its stimulating implications, and as they come to appreciate the rewarding effects of college credit granted to an eager and deserving secondary-school student.

ENCOURAGING REPORTS

While a major follow-up study of Advanced Placement students is planned for the future, some reports already have come in from a number of colleges and schools and these have been universally encouraging. The Advanced Placement students do well in college. Most students, of course, take Advanced Placement courses in only one or two subjects. In a few instances, students have amassed enough credit in high school to earn the equivalent of sophomore standing on entrance to college. There were about 50 of these in the fall of 1957. These 50 may thus reduce their undergraduate years to three if they wish to do so. So far, most of these students evidently do not plan to accelerate, preferring the four years in college. Some may later, of course, find themselves in a position to combine

undergraduate and graduate work in a way which may shorten the total span for the higher degrees.

Although such students should not be forced to accelerate, they should certainly be allowed to move faster than the average if they wish to do so. They need not be pushed—for human beings apparently develop to individual capacities at individual rates. But neither should they be jealously restrained. We inhibit a man's growth at our peril.

It is, of course, humanly easy to exaggerate the importance of a program in which one has been himself directly involved. But consider this: American education has—for many reasons—arrived in its history at a moment of selfexamination and change. In that process, the Advanced Placement Program has been a sound and influential force among the catalysts. The Advancement Placement Program is a fulfillment. It is also the promise of a new direction in our educational growth. It is imaginative. And it is a reaffirmation of our faith that scholarship is a matter of high consequence.

Conferences and discussions of the problems relevant to school and college education and articulation have been set in motion by those associated with the Advanced Placement Program. Inquiries about these conferences or information about the program itself may be obtained from its present director, Jack N. Arbolino, Advanced Placement Program, College Entrance Examination Board, 425 West 117th Street, New York 27, New York. •

PLANS to initiate a special school for gifted children in September, 1960, have been announced by Joseph E. Maddy, University of Michigan professor of music and founder of the National Music Camp at Interlochen, Michigan. To qualify for the special school, children would need: demonstrated talent in one of the arts—music, art, speech, or dance; extended-interest span; and an IQ of 120 or better. Through intense concentrated programs and a "steady 24 hours a day of living and learning experiences," Dr. Maddy hopes to push to capacity the mind and capabilities of the gifted child. The school year will be from 32 to 36 weeks long, with two long vacation periods in mid-winter and summer. After completing the 12th grade, some pupils could step directly into their sophomore or junior years of college, Dr. Maddy said. The new school, including grades seven through 12, will be located at Interlochen, on the grounds of the National Music Camp.

Hardly a Panacea but Worthy of Consideration

A Three-Semester School Year

M. E. HERRIOTT

In The Clearing House

OUR schools are in a fix! The teacher shortage continues with no relief in sight. The classroom shortage is severe, with no possibility that building will catch up with the growing enrolments.

I suggest that there is a simple solution—that the teacher shortage and the classroom shortage could both be remedied overnight and the schools brought into line with modern conditions by adoption of a three-semester school year. I do not imply that this change could be made without difficulty, or even without confusion; but I do believe that it is an answer.

I suggest that the school year be organized on a three-semester basis, with each semester consisting of 17 weeks or 85 days. Pupils would normally attend any two of the three semesters for the traditional one year or grade of advancement. Teachers would receive their current annual salary for teaching two of the three semesters, but would be given opportunity to teach all three semesters as needed and as health would permit.

It is as simple as that. To put it into practice would create problems. Safeguards would have to be built in to realize good results. Among these good results would be the following:

Teaching could be, in large measure, transformed from a seasonal occupation to a full-time profession. The teacher shortage would virtually evaporate, for two teachers could teach as many pupils in three semesters as three teachers now teach in a school year of two semesters. In theory, present school staffs could teach 50 percent more pupils. In practice, of course, there would be no full realization of this possibility, but it could be approximated.

Building shortages should disappear overnight, for the facilities now needed by two pupils would suffice for three. In theory, present school facilities could accommodate 50 percent more pupils.

Family life should be less affected by the peculiarities of school time schedules. Those presently affected by shortened or half-day sessions should be relieved of this difficulty. Those who now must take their vacations solely during the summer period, or take their children out of school, or leave them unsupervised, need not be under this handicap. Their vacations

M. E. Herriott is Principal of Airport Junior-High School, Los Angeles, California. Reported from The Clearing House, *XXXIII (December* 1958), 205–6.

could be taken during the semester when their children were not enrolled in school.

YEAR-ROUND FUNCTIONS

The social and economic life of the country could function the year round without the serious restrictions during the autumn, winter, or school vacation period. Families could enjoy the pleasures of vacations during the autumn, winter, or spring, as well as the summer. Industry could plan on continuous operation without the summer letdown. Organizations such as the P.T.A. and coordinating councils could continue to function the year round, instead of closing up shop from May to October. Those businesses and services which cater to the vacationists would become less seasonal, probably less exorbitant in cost, and consequently more widely available to all. Teachers who now suffer from the long summer vacation without pay would receive their pay the year round when they taught three-semester years, as they would undoubtedly tend to do.

A major change of this nature cannot be accomplished with a wave of the hand. Tradition would continue to have its effect. No doubt, the largest enrolment would occur in the fall semester; the smallest, in the summer. Many parents and some students would press to take advantage of acceleration by attendance for three semesters in one year. This might prove to be as much of a difficulty as an advantage. The problem would be one of establishing and maintaining control of the situation. Many teachers who should take recuperative vacations from the classroom would be loath to do so if there were opportunity to teach and receive pay the year round.

It would be administratively difficult to equate a variety of factors, such as the privilege of teaching three semesters, the teacher needs of the schools, and the capabilities and capacities of teachers. And finally, with a third—more or less—of the school population out of school at any given time, the problems of enforcing attendance and of controlling loitering would be accentuated. On the other hand, such services as playgrounds, youth swimming pools, and the like, would need to provide more nearly adequate year-round programs yet never have the peak load and slack periods of the present.

Panacea? Hardly. A sure-fire remedy? Probably not. An idea worthy of careful consideration? Definitely. Any suggestion that promises to get us off the horns of the twin dilemma of teacher shortages and plant shortages should be carefully examined. Any suggestion that promises to make it possible to upgrade the quality of teaching and lessen the taxpayer's burden of school taxes should command the attention of school administrators and boards of education. The three-semester idea qualifies. Let's have at it! •

1959

Devoted to the "Things" of Education

New Lab to Study Plant Problems

HAROLD B. GORES

In The School Executive

EARLY in 1958 the Ford Foundation established a corporation—Educational Facilities Laboratories, Inc.—to help schools and colleges solve their physical problems. A sum of $4½ million was appropriated to this corporation for its presumed life of five years, a board of directors consisting of 12 distinguished persons from business and education was appointed, and in May officers were elected.

The charter of EFL states its general functions. In short, the provisions of its charter point out that EFL is interested in the "things" of education—the plant itself, both indoors and out, its equipment, furnishings, and the planning thereof to the end that the total environment will have assisted teachers to teach and students to learn.

EFL begins with no preconceived structure, organization, or intellectual commitment to a special cause. It will mold itself to the needs of the field as they are revealed. The overriding concept is service to schools and colleges and, by exercising the freedom provided in its charter, service to those professions which, in turn, serve the schools and colleges.

At first glance the sum of $4½ million appears to be a massive infusion of money with which to aid all parties concerned, but the fact is that the ratio of EFL money to the amount that will be spent in the field in the next decade by public and private agencies is in the ratio of 1:4000. In order to achieve the most significant benefits for these limited funds, EFL's operations will have to be mixed. In some cases it will support other groups by direct grants in areas where such groups are already organized and working on important problems in educational facilities. In other cases, where there is no existing group which can or will carry on research or offer advice in matters we find to be vital, EFL will undertake to serve as an operating agency and establish *ad hoc* groups to that end. But EFL will not be able to offer particular advice and assistance to any substantial number of individual school boards, trustees, institutions, and professional groups. It must operate through general studies with emphasis on widely disseminated information.

The first grant that EFL has

Harold B. Gores is President of Educational Facilities Laboratories, Incorporated, New York City. *Reported from* The School Executive, *LXXVII* (*December* 1958), 21–23.

made will illustrate one kind of support EFL will be able to give. After careful consideration of all the factors which commended it, EFL has granted $75,850 to the American Institute of Physics and the American Association of Physics Teachers to undertake jointly a survey of physics building facilities in colleges and universities in the United States. The study will be directed by a committee composed of representatives of these two groups, and possibly the Building and Architectural Committee of the National Academy of Sciences. In addition, the advice of persons representing related sciences and other disciplines will be sought.

PHYSICS FACILITIES

An inventory will be taken of the entire physics building facilities (lecture halls, laboratories, preparation rooms, and specialized facilities, such as those required to handle radioactive materials) in a group of institutions which have already indicated a willingness to cooperate in this study. The physics departments in these institutions will be asked to provide plans of their facilities with special attention to outstanding features and the detailed criticism thereof. The study also will include appropriate references to desirable physical facilities for high schools and junior colleges.

All data collected will be deposited with the American Institute of Physics and made available to physicists, administrators, educators, trustees, architects, and others having an interest in physics facilities.

It is hoped that the quarter of a billion dollars currently scheduled to be spent on new physics buildings will thus have been wisely guided by this increased information, and that many more plans being made will be guided by the expressed opinions of persons informed on the likely shape of things to come.

PLANS AFFECTED

While EFL is currently developing a general program to avoid the sin of scatter-giving, some developments will affect its plans. One such event was the passage of the National Defense Education Act of 1958, which carries a potential expenditure of $939 million over a four-year period. Title III of the Act authorized $280 million to be granted to the states for equipment and minor remodeling for science, mathematics, and foreign languages in schools and junior colleges. With the matching funds called for under this Title, a potential of over $500 million exists for such purposes. On passage of the Act, EFL was approached at once by several groups interested in bringing together information to help the states and local school districts spend Title III money with maximum effectiveness. EFL's first response to this new need has been to bring assistance to the chief state school

officers through their national association.

At the moment EFL is devoting most of its energy to the investigation of likely sources of information already extant and the seeking of advice as to promising objects of EFL inquiry. In this preliminary scouting we have been aided greatly by a conference called last summer in our behalf by Walter Cocking, editor of *The School Executive*. This group of 14 educators, architects, and school and community planners recommended a broad focus for EFL in considering future research. Above all else was stressed the principle that human values are central; that students, whether young or old, are people first of all; that however precise or pressing the academic task may be, the environment and the tools must accommodate themselves to the physical, psychological, and aesthetic requirements imposed by the nature of the inhabitant scholar and those who teach him. It was urged that this point of view should color every subsequent effort of EFL in its studies of educational programs and services, integration of educational planning with over-all community planning, the planning process itself, educational structure, sites and their development, building structures, engineering design, and equipment.

A CLEARINGHOUSE

In sum, and at this early part of its life, EFL sees its usefulness being worked in a number of ways —as for example, a clearinghouse and registry for school facilities research and the dissemination thereof. It is also promoting research within the limits of its capital. It is acting as a catalyst for all those professions, societies, industries, and associations which are serving the field. It is attracting venture capital. And it is speaking out, where its voice can be heard above the shouting, for the good schools that the vast majority of Americans want and should have for their children.

These are exciting times to be in education. It is equally exciting to be concerned with the physical surroundings of education, for form follows function and the freedom of the educator to educate is circumscribed by the kind and quality of the space and the tools we give him to work in and with. When the educator asks for schools that are something other than "egg boxes," we must be ready to give him the malleable interior, flexible at will, that he seeks. When the beleaguered taxpayer is fearful that he has bought a "palace," he should have the facts. If it is a palace he had better know it and how it got that way, but if it is instead one of the stripped "parking garages" being passed off as a schoolhouse in financially or culturally impoverished communities, he should know that too.

Winston Churchill said it best. "We shape our buildings and thereafter they shape us." •

Unanswered Questions in

Research on the Talented

MIRIAM L. GOLDBERG

In Teachers College Record

RECENT concern with the education of superior students has resulted in a sizeable crop of studies. No attempt will be made here to present a review of current literature in this field. Instead we shall speak of some questions which remain unanswered, and suggest some areas in which schools may most profitably expend their research efforts.

Miriam L. Goldberg is Assistant Professor of Education, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City. Reported from Teachers College Record, *LX (December* 1958), 150–63.

Some of the current research has sought to add to the knowledge of what the superior youngster is like. In summary, it may be said that talented children today are generally much like their predecessors. The information on the characteristics of the intellectually able child seems to be fairly adequate; it is our ability to identify him that still lacks precision. No available measuring instrument is a sure-fire predictor of academic success. For, although we can assess intellectual ability fairly adequately by means of intelligence, aptitude, and achievement tests, we are as yet unable to measure the nonintellectual factors that may be crucial to predicting academic success.

In general, the intelligence test, preferably an individual one, seems to be the best single predictor of success at the elementary-school level, at which stage, it is believed, no marked differentiation of abilities has developed. At the high-school level, tests of educational development appear to be most effective in discovering both general and specific strengths and weaknesses. For the prediction of college success, the psychological examination is giving way to measures more closely related to achievement, which have been found to predict more accurately.

Certainly more systematic research on identification is needed. We must recognize the multifaceted nature of giftedness or talent and explore the best means of assessing not only each facet, but also the interaction of the various components. It is easy to identify the "able and ambitious" student—in fact he almost identifies himself—but it is not easy to locate the potentially able, unambitious one. Nor do we know the proportions of ability and ambition necessary to produce high-level achievement.

Administrative procedures for taking care of exceptionally able

students, especially "ability grouping" and "acceleration," have long been a source of concern to teachers and administrators. Both these practices arouse heated arguments, and research findings seem powerless against the vested emotionality of educators and laymen alike.

What does recent research tell us about grouping? It generally confirms past research: placing able youngsters into narrow-range ability groups tends to result in somewhat greater achievement and does not foster the development of poor social or personal adjustment. But the arguments continue. Isn't it important for all children to learn to accept one another, and doesn't this imply that we must place youngsters of various ability levels together?

Desirous of retaining the achievement benefits of narrow-range grouping while fostering broad social relationships, several schools have instituted partial grouping. The gifted are in special classes for part of the day, in regular classes for the rest of the day. Evaluation of such programs—and several others—continues, and it is hoped that the findings from the studies now in progress will provide schools with the necessary information for making critical value judgment in the use of ability grouping.

ACCELERATION

Acceleration is second only to ability grouping in arousing emotional response. There is hardly a person who cannot conjure up at least one example of how acceleration ruined a child's life or at least created serious unhappiness, and yet it is hard to find a single research study which shows acceleration to be harmful. On the contrary, from the early studies of the 1930's until the recent report by the Fund for the Advancement of Education on its Early Admissions Program, acceleration has proved to be a very satisfactory method of challenging able students.

Certainly caution needs to be exercised in selecting candidates for accelerated programs. And, acceleration does raise questions. Is one time better than another for acceleration? Are there developmental factors that might suggest that at certain ages there may be more dangers or at least more discomfort for the child? More research on this point is needed. We must conclude that, although we do not have all the answers to this problem, there is certainly nothing in research today that would gainsay Terman's recommendation that acceleration of no less than one year and probably no more than two is a most satisfactory procedure for bright youngsters.

No matter how adequately a school may handle the problems of grouping and grade placement—or even the important matter of guidance—the major question in educating talented youngsters still remains unanswered: How should the actual course content and teaching method be differentiated

for these students? The glib answer is, enrich the curriculum. But enrichment, like the weather, is something everybody talks about but few do anything about. We really don't know what enrichment is. Perhaps the very word enrichment is a misnomer; perhaps what is needed is not embellishment of existing course content but *different* content. Despite experimentation now going on, and despite the plethora of "promising practices" suggested by and for teachers, there are questions here which remain unanswered.

MOTIVATION QUESTIONS

Unanswered also are many matters connected with motivation and attitudes. We have known for many years that a child's IQ, or even his score on aptitude tests, accounts for only a part of what determines his academic achievement or his vocational selection. Teachers have long been familiar with the able, unmotivated student, and many a report card has gone home bearing the notation, "Should be doing better." Varied and widespread experimentation and research goes on in this area of "underachievement" but much more is needed to discover ways in which the schools can help boys and girls who do not do as well as they can. A prior step to actual administrative planning for them would involve much more careful academic, psychological, and possibly even psychiatric screening.

It is probably important to differentiate between the underachieving youngster who will rise to the occasion in the secondary-school situation given some help and understanding, and the youngster whose problems are too deep-seated to be amenable to any help at that late date. Extensive research is needed on identification of potential underachievers in the elementary grades and the junior-high-school grades, in order that they can be helped before they become too well adapted to their own poor work and study patterns and before their anxieties can channel their defenses into underachievement.

What does research tell us about current trends in the education of superior children? In the past, surveys indicated that few schools were making special provisions for this group. But recent surveys and school reports show a growing awareness on the part of educators of the importance of making special educational provisions for the gifted child. At the secondary-school level, especially in large schools, ability grouping through sectioning and honor classes is becoming more widespread. Not so at the elementary level. Here classroom enrichment still holds its own. Least is being done in small non-suburban communities. The outstanding programs have involved special staff and additional cost. Certain schools which have provided very well for their able students still do not consider their present programs adequate.

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A new trend is seen in the efforts of state departments of education to undertake work in cooperation with public schools, sometimes also involving institutions of higher learning in cooperative effort. Not yet apparent in surveys or in school reports, but a trend nevertheless, is the recent determination to make able students work harder, take more years of solid subjects, spend less time in nonacademic pursuits. This determination is quite marked in the reports of the working groups at the recent National Education Association Invitational Conference.

The matters touched on here give some idea of the kinds of questions that are being looked into at present. Some of the current concern has been stimulated not so much by educational reevaluation as by manpower needs. And there is some danger that the immediate demands of the culture for more scientists and mathematicians will lead schools into urging able students into these fields at the expense of other intellectual endeavors. Thoughtful consideration on the part of school people is needed if we are not to sacrifice both special talents and the long-range needs of our culture on the altar of immediate demands.

GREAT NEED TODAY

The great research need today is in the field of content and method, which will lead to a sound theory of enrichment. We need to know what will stimulate a love of learning among able children; what kinds of assignments will most effectively develop independence of thinking and independence of effort; whether there are some subjects in which acceleration through the present curriculum is the most appropriate kind of teaching, and other subjects in which greater exploration in depth or expanded exploration in breadth may be the answer; something about the interrelationships of various aptitudes and talents. Should all intellectually able students take the same kinds of courses, such as three years of mathematics, three years of science, and at least three years of a foreign language, in addition to the required English and social studies? Or should the course offering be more carefully differentiated in terms of special aptitudes and interests of students? Should students with high academic aptitude be encouraged to take art or music or drama as a major subject?

All these questions are still open, as are many that relate to guidance and counseling, particularly for the underachiever. Answers to these questions will emerge as schools become further involved in research efforts. As schools pay more attention to the available research and act on it, and at the same time become actively involved in the pursuit of research in their own schools, we will go a long way toward improving our educational procedures, not only for the gifted child, but for all youngsters in our schools. •

Is Our Curriculum Off Balance?

Science, Society, and the Curriculum

EARL S. JOHNSON

In The School Review

I THINK of a curriculum as a constitution, a way of life for the intellectual and moral development of human beings under the aegis of the school. This conception has its origin in social philosophy, not in pedagogy. In this view, the goals that the curriculum sets are secondary, not primary. That is, the goals are secondary to the image that a people have of the kind of society they want and the qualities that human beings must have to bring that society to realization and to sustain and improve it.

The curriculum is in balance when physical, social, and humane materials are in balance, or in their proper proportion, and their interrelations clearly established. My faith is that the complement to a balanced curriculum is a coherent human being. These are, so to speak, the intellectual and the human sides of the coin of education.

Balance in the curriculum is powerfully conditioned by the degree to which the "educative school" and the "educative society" work in harmony. This harmony, I believe, is now seriously impaired. For the educative society is making demands on the educative school that bode ill for a proper balance between the physical, the social, and the humane components of the curriculum. One demand, perhaps more implied than clearly stated, is that the secondary schools produce forthwith, if not retroactively, an army of embryo scientists—mathematicians and physicists chiefly. In support of this threatening demand, the curriculum of the secondary schools of the Soviets is being held before us either as the model in the image of which we should reform ours or as the one we must surpass. One or the other, or both, are necessary if we are to increase our output of future scientists. So runs the argument—and the hysteria.

Earl S. Johnson is Professor of The Social Sciences at the University of Chicago, Illinois. *Reported from* The School Review, *LXVI (Winter* 1958), 437–45.

Criticism of this threat to our secondary-school curriculum does not gainsay that we are in great danger—how imminent, no one knows—of a hot war. But there is another danger, perhaps even more imminent. This is the danger that we shall weaken the bastion of our spirit by presuming to strengthen the bastion of our fists.

The argument that the curriculum of the Russian secondary school ought to be taken, in whole or in

part, as a model for ours must be rejected on the ground that the curriculum of a given culture is not a fit item for export to another culture. This principle is quite as applicable to the exchange of curriculums between democratic cultures as it is to the exchange of curriculums between democratic and totalitarian cultures.

OUR BOOTSTRAPS OR IVAN'S?

The argument that Russia begins the teaching of science in kindergarten, if such be the case, or that the Soviets hold school on Saturday, require double the homework that we do, and pay their teachers ten times what we do, moves me not a bit. If we fail to do these things, assuming that they are appropriate and necessary to our social and educational philosophy, I prefer to believe that we fail because we have fallen short of our own goals and needs, not that we have lagged behind standards to which the Russians hold. In other words, I prefer to improve our curriculum by pulling ourselves up by our own bootstraps, not those of Ivan! If perchance something of profit to us may be learned from Russia's educational practices, let us make the most of it, not because the Russians follow these practices, but because we ought to in the service of ends, and by means, that are appropriate to our way of life.

My deep concern is this: Will the new and heavy emphasis on the teaching of science in our secondary schools bring out the moral principles involved? Will these be made clear? Or will they be forgotten? Will the spirit of science be taught as well as its techniques? If not, we shall produce not scientists, embryo though they must be, but gadgeteers! Will our boys and girls learn that the choice of the method of science is a moral choice? Will they be taught that dependence on science is an act of faith? Will they learn that science does not begin with something called "the facts" but with the excitement of imagination? Or call it, if you please, a sense of the mystery of all nature or, in Albert Einstein's phrase, "the holy curiosity of inquiry."

Will they learn that science is neutral and that there is no way of classifying knowledge into good and bad, safe and unsafe? Will they learn that they may rely on science and act on it, not without the chance of error, but without fear? Will they learn that science is not only a tool but also a guide—but that to which it guides lies not with science itself but with human concern and passion?

However much science can help us make a better society, its methods are not those of the democratic process. The distinction is this: the democratic way of life will survive in this complex world of science only if a considerable proportion of the decisions that democratic people make are as right as science can make them. But decisions in a democracy are right

only if freely arrived at, whatever the findings and verdict of science. In science, problems are resolved by the discovery of the order that is in nature and the use of that knowledge to control nature. In a democracy, the problems are those of policy, which are social and moral problems, and these are resolved, at least ideally, through full discussion among free men.

There are many ways in which the method of science—which is the method of intelligence—may be used. There are many ways of writing the prescription for its use. I choose the following: The method of science tells us what means are, or are not, appropriate for the realization of our desires; it helps us criticize our desires by aiding our understanding of their practical meaning or, as the case may be, their utter uselessness; it permits us to examine the internal consistency of our desires and thus become aware of the "ultimate axioms" of our conduct; it informs us of the conditions necessary for the nurture and growth of our values and the consequences that will likely follow from acting to bring them to realization; and it helps us see what other values are served or disserved by our choice of "this" value. Thus, science helps us determine what we may value, but it cannot make the judgments for us as to which values we ought to prefer. It mediates, but it does not rule. We act from faith, not from reason.

These, then, are some of the matters to be considered when we think of balance in our curriculum. The physical, social, and humane materials must be placed in their proper proportion and their interrelations clearly established. It is the relation between science, symbolized by the natural-science studies, and society, symbolized by the social and humane studies, that will ultimately determine the balance in our curriculum. If the relation between these studies is established, the problem of their proportional share in the curriculum will be resolved.

The curriculum, indeed human life itself, gets its unity through relating the interests, capacities, and talents of human beings; the knowledge and skills necessary for the survival of individuals and their culture; and the ideals, aims, and values of a civilization. If any one of these is off balance, the others are also.

The components of the curriculum at every level of general education must be the components of man himself. Reduced to two, these are loving and thinking. The balance and unity that must obtain between them, not only in the curriculum of the school, but in the structure of culture itself, have been described with conviction and beauty by the philosopher, William E. Hocking: "The new conscience is finding its courage because man's soul is recovering the sight of both its eyes. It is taking the scientific conscience into the house, not as a master, but as a partner." •

1959

"All We Do Is Read, Read, Read Hard Stuff"

Future Improvements in the Teaching of Reading

ARTHUR I. GATES

In The Reading Teacher

RESEARCH in the teaching of reading suggests many possible improvements. Some are tentative because they depend on uncertain future changes in family and community life, or technical advances in communication mediums, or additional developments in reading research itself, or all of these. They are likely not to be made until sometime in the future. Other improvements are more clearly suggested by earlier research and probably can be more easily made in the near future. To discern the improvements in the teaching of reading which are most needed in the immediate future, one must survey the results of research to find the components of instruction which are most essential or potent. One must also consider the conditions surrounding the teaching of reading and the trends in the teaching of reading which are most frequently found in typical American schools today.

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During the two preceding years, the writer, in the process of revising and restandardizing four of his batteries of reading tests, had the opportunity of obtaining useful facts about conditions, materials, and methods of teaching reading in a large sampling of schools in all parts of the country. It was found, among many interesting facts, that, in general, classes are larger and younger and have a greater range of individual differences today than formerly. It was found that basal reading systems are almost universally used (about 99 percent), although with variations in procedure. It was found that there has been a great increase in the number of miscellaneous books in the classroom libraries.

During the past few years, the writer also has accumulated teachers' opinions about the greatest difficulties encountered in teaching reading. Lack of time to deal adequately with all the individuals in the class appears to be a most persistent problem. The teacher realizes that he should study each child thoroughly in all his characteristics and provide generous amounts of individual guidance almost every day, but he, typically, finds it impossible. There are frankly too many pupils and too many other phases of teaching for him to handle. He is forced to spend most of his time with the

whole class, or at best a sizeable group, while painfully aware that his teaching is far from sharply adjusted to individual needs. The greatest need of the immediate future is improvement in meeting individual needs, either by reducing the size of classes, or providing more teachers' aides per class, or smarter teachers, or by greatly improved teaching materials and procedures, or all of these.

BASAL VS. INDIVIDUALIZED

For several decades there have been a number of teachers and students of teaching methods who have felt that the best way to get teachers to attend to individual needs is to eliminate the "basal text" type of program entirely and to adopt an "individualized program." An open-minded survey of the research and of the experience of teachers who have used basal reading programs and the better types of "individualized reading" procedures will enable one to see that the best teaching will combine the good features of both methods. The best work with basal books embodies individualized teaching, and the best "individualized teaching" includes whole class and subgroup activities and the use of materials taken from, or identical in principle with, basal readers and workbooks. We should nip in the bud the idea, now beginning to emerge, that one must accept one or the other of two antagonistic systems. We must undertake to discern the good features of each and attempt to embody them into what should be a better system than either.

The remainder of this article will consist of a brief discussion of a few general principles which the writer believes should be followed in the effort to evolve an improved program in the immediate future.

A century of research in psychology has shown that reading is a subtle skill like singing, playing the violin or bridge or tennis or golf, and that it takes years of devoted practice under *expert guidance* to achieve high levels of efficiency. The pupil must be motivated sufficiently to enjoy trying hard to learn, and the teacher must know intimately what skills, insights, and techniques produce the best performance in the long run. An eager learner and a shrewd teacher are more important than any books or materials or program in reading.

DO-IT-YOURSELF

The emphasis should be shifted from teaching the child how to learn by being taught—that is, waiting to be told what exercises to do, what books to read, what details to study—to learning how to learn by himself. This is what a youngster strives to do when he learns to play baseball or tennis or to swim. He tries to figure out how to go about it himself. He strives to understand how the good pitcher or swimmer performs and what he as a learner is doing wrong. There is a strong suggestion in the results of research and in observations of

expert teaching in dancing, music, and athletics, that we have greatly underestimated the school child's capacity for achieving insight into the nature of good and poor techniques. He can learn under his own steam in reading—provided he has a teacher shrewd enough to help him.

The facilities long used by football coaches and tutors of prospective movie actors for cultivating selfinsight in their students, and diagnostic insight for themselves, should be employed more extensively. Moving pictures, and now television pictures, of expert performers demonstrating the various good ways of tackling unfamiliar words, of skimming a newspaper, etc., could easily, but not inexpensively, be prepared. Tape recorders can be put to a number of illuminating uses in teaching reading. The subtle arts of the master teachers should be made widely available on television, and in sound-motion pictures for other teachers to observe. Television offers opportunities for master teachers to teach pupils and less gifted teachers at the same time.

IS READING THE SLAVE?

Parenthetically, English teachers and specialists often appear to regard television and sound-motion pictures as rivals of reading and literature. It would probably really be a help in the development of interest and ability in reading if these mechanical devices could take over a much larger share of the teaching of the content subjects, especially those in which textbook reading material is notably difficult. Reading has been and still is the slave of the school curriculum. If a pupil thinks of hard school work, he thinks of reading a hard book or manual. All day long—the youngsters complain—it is read, read, read hard stuff. Little wonder the child, or college student, or business man, for that matter, is likely to turn to something else as soon as the work day is over. If reading were not labored so long and so hard in school, it would be a lot more fun. Paradoxically, pupils would probably read more if they were *required* to read less.

Suggestions for certain changes in the roles of the teacher and the learner have been made. Now, what about the authors and publishers of teaching materials? There is much for them to do. They need to produce materials that are designed primarily to foster self-learning. They are already producing a flood of do-it-yourself books and articles in other areas—hunting, fishing, football, bridge, dancing, drawing, hi-fi phonographs, and so on. Why not do-it-yourself books and booklets for reading? There are possibilities for immediate improvement here, especially for materials designed clearly to meet a wide range of individual differences, and to help the pupils learn by themselves.

We should launch studies of ways in which children can learn

better by themselves and teach each other in various arrangements by pairs, trios, and quartets. The typical school provides work by a whole class or by the individual or subgroups, typically groups of six to ten pupils, but little with smaller units. As greater skill in self-learning and understanding appear, a greater specialization in grouping should be possible in spite of the now widely held feeling that three or four groups are about all a teacher can contend with. Experimentation with the small groups is almost negligible. It is promising. It is needed.

Definite steps should be taken to make better use of special abilities of members of the staff of a school system, and to secure additional special services when needed. The administrative provisions for making use of teacher cooperative groupings, of "master teachers," "reading specialists," psychologists, reading centers, teachers' helpers, and community agencies in some school systems point up the possibilities of rich returns for the improvement of classroom instruction.

Finally, and perhaps most important of all, is the recognition that the school should now develop reading enthusiasms and skills not only for typical school materials but also, indeed perhaps primarily, for enjoying and learning from the wealth of material available for all ages and at all hours of the day and night outside of school. The mass of material appearing daily in newspapers, tabloids, comics, in hundreds of periodicals, books, booklets, pamphlets, circulars, letters, on the television and movie screens, in radio broadcasts is almost overwhelming. While much of it is poor and some of it downright awful, much of it is interesting, informative, and more up-to-date than most school materials. The teacher of the communication arts should recognize that teaching how to deal efficiently and critically with this flood of material has become a basal part of every school's responsibility. Such learnings cannot be safely left for higher schools or adult education. Nowadays the kids are heavily occupied with these mediums before they enter the kindergarten. And what they get will in large measure be determined during the rest of their lives by what they *learn* to like and to handle efficiently. •

• Little Jerry's mother was crying when he started for his first day at school. "Aw, Mom, don't take it so hard," he consoled her. "Just as soon as I learn to write and read comics, I'll quit."—From *Christian Science Monitor.*

• Many a man's name appears in the papers only three times: when he's too young to read, when he's too dazed to read; and when he's too dead to read.—From *Bendixiline.*

Do They Have Time To Do Nothing?

Are Today's Children Overorganized?

MOLLIE SMART

In Parents' Magazine

DOROTHY is an attractive seventh-grader blessed liberally with intelligence and good looks. Her parents are well educated, loving, responsible, and concerned with providing the best for their daughter.

This is Dorothy's week: School every day, of course, and a half hour a day for cello practice. Homework nearly every day—one or two hours of it. Dorothy could get most of the homework done in school—but she's in the band and chorus. Mondays, the band stays after school for a meeting and extra practice. Monday nights, dancing school. Dorothy tries extra hard to do Monday's homework fast because there are not two hours between getting home from band and supper time.

Tuesday is Girl Scout day. An officer in her troop, Dorothy is working on four badges to attain first-class rank. And she has volunteered to make two cakes for the bake sale and take her turn as salesgirl. She always has to leave Scouts a few minutes early in order to get to her music lesson.

The neighborhood orchestra practices on Wednesday. This is Dorothy's first year in the orchestra, which is primarily for teenagers. It was such an honor to be asked that her mother hated to have her turn it down. When the orchestra performs at night, Dorothy gets very tired from staying up beyond her usual bedtime hour of 9:30. But then, she *always* hates to get up in the morning, even when she goes to bed on time.

Thursday, the orthodontist. But it takes only a few minutes to have her band examined and adjusted, so she's only a few minutes late for junior-choir practice.

Nothing's scheduled on Friday, although Friday is called "movie night" by the neighborhood youngsters. Sometimes there are parties on Fridays, or overnights. Dorothy likes to go shopping with her family Friday evenings on those rare occasions when she is not busy with her friends.

Saturday morning is for sleep and cleaning up her room, which is in quite a state by then. There are Girl Scout affairs on Saturdays now and then. Saturday night often brings more social activity and occasionally a baby-sitting job.

The choir has to be at the Sun-

Mollie Smart is Associate Professor of Child Development and Family Relations, University of Rhode Island, Kingston. Reported from Parents' Magazine, *XXXIII (December* 1958), 53, 80–82.

day School half an hour before the other children. Sometimes Dorothy goes to church as well as Sunday School. There are favorite television programs Sunday night, but very often Dorothy must miss them to do her homework.

This picture is not exaggerated. Anyone who deals with boys and girls of about 12 and up knows several children like Dorothy. Sometimes boys' schedules are even more crowded because they deliver papers, mow lawns, shovel snow.

Many parents are like Dorothy's parents. They go to a lot of trouble and expense to provide their boys and girls with all possible opportunities. Sometimes, it's true, they want to give their children certain opportunities simply because they missed out themselves. Often, though, it's just love. Limiting activities may look like depriving, and depriving is the last thing they want to do. Dorothy's mother is practically a taxi driver, running cheerfully from orthodontist to choir practice, from Scouts to music lesson. Her father willingly makes out the checks. They're proud of their daughter.

THE GOOD OF THE CHILD?

All of this seems to be for the "good of the child." But there is another side to this story. What does it mean to a child to live as Dorothy does? Harassment and fatigue. Many of these too-busy children have circles under their eyes. They drag themselves out of bed in the morning and come to breakfast without an appetite. Some of them are pretty hard on younger brothers and sisters. They worry about being able to meet all the demands on them.

The more a youngster crams into his schedule, the more he misses of freedom—freedom to be truly himself, to do what he wants, to do nothing, to make decisions, to grow. Having nothing that you *must* do means that you can do what you want to do, even if it is nothing. Children around 12 are growing fast in mind and body. It takes a certain amount of doing nothing to conserve bodily resources for growth. Likewise, letting the mind have free play gives a chance for consolidating knowledge and for creative thinking. In the teen years, a youngster tries to come to terms with himself as a person, seeing clearly his assets, limitations, and potentialities. He struggles to evolve a philosophy of living. He clarifies his thoughts through talking with friends—good long talks. It all takes time—time Dorothy doesn't have.

Parents of children—and their teachers, too—must help children find time for the freedom they need. They must help them toward a sensible balance of activity. Children need active guidance in these matters. It is easier to prevent program overloading in the first place than to undo the damage. Adults have to set the limits and then the children can make their choices.

Of course, this can bring on re-

bellion. Naturally a girl like Dorothy is sure to be resentful when her mother says: "Just look at the mess in this room! You haven't made your bed for a week and you haven't done your practicing either. Now movies and parties are *out* until you can do your work!"

But Dorothy might be quite cooperative with this approach: "You've so much cleaning up to do, I'd better help you change your bed. You know—it looks as though something has to give. You've been much too busy this week. You haven't had time to fix up your room or practice. What's least important to you? What might be cut out?"

It may help a child to reach a decision when an adult points out advantages and disadvantages. Out of their greater experience and maturity, adults see, for example, that Scouts and 4-H yield about the same rewards or that a certain outdoor activity may be the youngster's only chance for fresh air and large-muscle exercise. If the child is really allowed to make the final decision, he'll listen to the adult's idea and feel that they were together on the planning.

Lessons, particularly music lessons, are an area where many parents do not want to give their children a choice. Sometimes adults seem to feel that music is worth the price no matter what. Now if the youngster is very talented, he will want to take lessons and practice. But if he resists lessons and practicing, parents might ask themselves whose goals are influencing them—their own or the child's. And are they sacrificing his present well-being for the sake of nebulous future rewards?

NEED THEY FINISH?

Adolescents start and stop many activities, not just music lessons. Adults are often disturbed at shifting interests and lack of perseverance. Parents—and teachers also—may think it important to insist that children "finish what they started" with an eye to aiding character development through discipline. But in the process of searching out what kind of person he is and what his potentialities are, an adolescent needs many different kinds of experience. How will he know that he could be a good golfer unless he plays golf a few times? The same goes for amateur dramatics, bridge, square dancing. This is the time to travel, even if it's on a shoestring. A variety of people, places, books, arts, sports, games, and jobs are all important samples of experience. A young person who has to run entirely on schedule misses all sorts of opportunities for growth that present themselves only a few times.

One of the keys to helping our children make the best use of time—including "wasting" some of it—is probably to care less about doing what other people are doing. It makes it that much easier for them—and us—to weed out of the busy-busy-busy round that which really matters. •

What You Can Do to Help

The Disorderly Underachiever

NORMA E. CUTTS and NICHOLAS MOSELEY

In The High School Journal

IF you are enthusiastic about your subject and believe in its value for your students, you cannot help being irritated by the youngster who refuses to study it. Your irritation is increased if you are sure he's one of those who "could if he would."

And if he adds injury and insult by bothering students who wish to learn and by treating you with impertinence, you are only human if you react angrily. A vague sense of guilt, a thought that if you were only a more skillful teacher he would work better, may aggravate your feelings and complicate the situation. You and the lazy disturber of your class find yourselves at war with each other —a war that neither can win.

The way to peace is to remove the causes of trouble. Bad work and bad behavior march together because they are set off by the same causes. If you understand this, you become more objective in your view of the disorderly underachiever and suffer less from emotional strain in your dealings with him. If you can find the cause, you can help the individual face it and perhaps help him develop the strength to overcome it.

Any difficulty in a student's home life is almost sure to affect his life in school. A teacher of English III writes: "Alf's record showed that he had done superior work as a freshman and sophomore. His IQ on the Otis test was 128. But from the very beginning in my class he made a nuisance of himself. He never did any homework. When I called on him, he'd answer, 'Why should I know?' He'd show his superiority in disagreeable ways—for example, when a nice girl in the class said 'dis-hevel,' he neighed like a horse. I had him come in after school for make-up periods. Generally he just sat and looked sullenly at his book. But one day, when he was the only one there, I began to question him about what he had done during the summer. Little by little the story came out. He'd meant to go to camp but had had to stay home. His father couldn't afford the cost. His father and mother fought all the time. His mother accused his father of throwing money away on another woman. Alf guessed it was true. Anyway he saw no chance of going to college, so what was

Norma E. Cutts and Nicholas Moseley were formerly with New Haven State Teachers College, Connecticut. Reported from The High School Journal, *XLII (December* 1958), 79–83.

the use of studying? He'd better quit school and go to work."

Once this situation came to light, the teacher, working with the guidance counselor, was able to show Alf that he was old enough to stand on his own feet. His parents did separate, but Alf stayed in school and began to work hard in the hope of winning a scholarship.

Alf was lucky enough to find a sustaining hand in time, but countless bright students from cracked and broken homes are not so fortunate.

Faulty home discipline does not seem as serious as a marital disruption, but it seriously affects both the student's achievement and his behavior. For example, overstrictness may make the teen-ager rebel. He deliberately fails in his work and breaks all kinds of school rules just to prove his independence.

Parents' values almost inevitably influence those of their children and are reflected in the children's attitudes and behavior. Visit the home of a student who regularly fails to hand in his book reviews, and you will probably be struck by the absence of books and even of magazines.

But the cause of misbehavior or underachievement, or both, may lie in the school situation itself. Sometimes a pupil finds no challenge in his current work. Or the trouble is rooted in the past. As Terman pointed out, the bright student who has been drifting along without ever having to do much work doesn't know how to buckle down and study when he meets a difficult subject. He is quite likely to give up without trying, and to occupy his time with a smart-aleck type of showing off. Or it may be that the drifter has been so bored by classwork with which he was already familiar that he has become habitually inattentive and has missed fundamentals. Later, when the time of need comes, he is found wanting and blames everyone but himself.

If you have 150 or more pupils, you may well ask how you can find time to diagnose the underachiever's difficulties, not to mention finding the time and strength necessary for the patient work of rehabilitation. Rehabilitation is generally not an easy process even if your school is lucky enough to have good guidance counselors to assist you. True, you may in the long run save time and energy, because, if you are successful, you'll be relieved of chores like make-up sessions and of the emotional strain of conflict. But your great reward will be the joy of rescuing a strayed —and potentially valuable—sheep. Here are some methods which may help you.

HELPFUL METHODS

Be sure of the facts about the pupil. Check the cumulative record, including the health record. Interview his other teachers, past and present. Give, or ask the counselor to give, supplementary tests. Remember that disciplinary diffi-

culties are often caused by work that is too difficult for a student as well as by work that is too easy. Your problem student may prove to be well above your class in achievement. On the other hand, he may prove to be not as bright as you had thought.

Observe this disorderly underachiever systematically and deliberately. Does he show any signs of illness or a physical disability? Does he ever reveal sparks of interest? When and over what? How does his written work compare with his oral work? Who are his friends in the class? What is the class's attitude toward him?

Confer informally with the student. Do your best to get him to talk. Refrain from interrupting with good advice—if you are a good listener he may reveal his troubles and talk himself into the best way of overcoming them. At least he will feel you are his friend. You may learn something about his special interests, the people he admires—both adults and contemporaries—and his ambitions for later life. This underachiever may tell you that he doesn't know what he wants to become, or that all he wants is to leave school and get any kind of a job. But he is sure to reveal *some* special interests to which school work might contribute. At least you can show him what good work habits are, that good work habits produce good marks, and that the two together will help him get a good job.

Confer with parents, both parents if possible. Listening pays dividends here, too. But take the chance to point out the importance of having the pupil do his homework in a quiet place at a regular time and without interruption, the need for firm, consistent, but not overstrict discipline, and the crucial influence of a good example. You'll need to be tactful!

Try to have the student assigned to a class and a course in line with his ability and achievement. This assumes that your school groups pupils by ability or that it limits the college course to superior students. Too often, the bright but disorderly pupil is denied placement in a high group just because he is disorderly, when all he needs is to be challenged.

Experiment with group work in your classroom and in homework and special assignments. When you set up groups, try to arrange for the underachiever to work with a good student whom he admires. Suggest a similar arrangement for homework and for work on special projects. This not only breaks up undesirable companionships, but also helps convince the underachiever that good work is not "irregular."

Examine your program and methods. Is the work you require really challenging? Is your discipline consistent? Firm but friendly? Are you providing for individual differences in ability? When all is said and done, the teacher who keeps his students busy and interested serves them best. •

1959

Long Live Buck Rogers!

Science Fiction in the Elementary School

ALAN L. DODD

In The Science Teacher

TODAY'S children are being bombarded by all the means of mass communication with an endless barrage of science fiction. Television, newspapers, comic books, children's magazines, and even the often forgotten medium of radio are capitalizing on the current scientific emphasis to appeal to young readers and listeners.

The bulk of the science fiction centers around space and space travel. As in actuality we move nearer to the realization of space travel, these communication mediums are already taking children into outer space by way of the child's imagination. Even the once dead and forgotten Buck Rogers has been reincarnated.

Most educators would agree they would prefer that elementary-school children read material on a higher level and also watch more worthwhile television programs. However, as merely preferring this will cause no significant change in children's behavior, what use can be made of science fiction by the elementary-school teacher as she teaches science to her pupils? In considering this problem let us look at two examples of how science fiction can be used at the elementary level.

Miss Jones' fifth-grade students had been working on a unit in astronomy and were quite interested in doing some activities dealing with space travel. In discussions that followed, several children shared the ideas they had read in science-fiction books and had seen on television. The class decided they would like to prepare an exhibit dealing with space travel.

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The students worked diligently preparing models of space ships, space suits and helmets, and examples of life on other planets. Most of their conceptions of such things were gained from the fictional materials that they read and saw on their TV screens. A great deal of time was spent in reproducing the detail of these various space gadgets as the children interpreted them. Their imaginations ran wild and an awesome display of paraphernalia resulted.

Mrs. Brown's fifth graders also had studied a unit in astronomy and exhibited a similar interest in space. Their teacher encouraged them to share the fictional material that was readily available on this fascinating subject. After sev-

eral of the children had presented material, Mrs. Brown raised this question: How much of what has been presented is actually based on facts that can be verified? There were differing opinions as to how much of what authors incorporated into their fictional space stories was fact. Opinion ran from Billy, who said, "It must all be true because I've seen it on TV," to Mary, who was sure these were merely a result of the author's vivid imagination.

Mrs. Brown suggested that they take some of the ideas presented in the books and test them by consulting other sources. This the children did, using reference books, scientific journals, and resource people, as they sought to separate the truth from fiction and the possible from the impossible.

What values were the result of these two pieces of work labeled elementary-school science? Certainly both experiences drew on children's interest as a motivating force. Both probably kept a good part of the class interested and engaged in some type of activity. Both experiences were probably exciting enough for the children involved to remember some of the activities.

However, it would seem that the second group engaged in an experience much more likely to contribute to the realization of some important goals of the elementary-school science program. These children had the opportunity and were encouraged to look critically at science fiction and either verify or reject the ideas presented. They were encouraged to employ sound research techniques on their level of understanding as they went about the job of finding out how far scientists have really gone in their plans for traveling into outer space. In sharing their ideas with one another they were able to engage in the give and take that usually helps children arrive at sound conclusions.

A great deal of time can be spent constructing a space helmet out of a cardboard box without the child gaining much as far as science is concerned. This is not to say that there is no place in the elementary-science program for activity. We must be careful not to lose sight of the reasons that we teach science in the elementary school.

It would seem that the latter approach to science fiction as it affects elementary-school children is sounder. That is, teachers can utilize science fiction's motivational values and at the same time help children intelligently interpret it in terms of scientific truths. •

THE second graders' project on space travel hit a snag. One boy complained, "The girls want to put up curtains in our space ship."—From *Michigan Education Journal.*

1959

More Research Needed on the Mentally Retarded

The School Psychologist and Research

HAROLD SEASHORE

In Exceptional Children

WE psychologists are committed to the idea that the practice of our profession and the advancement of our science shall go hand in hand. This commitment has become more determined as we have moved toward the doctorate as the symbol of basic training.

Meanwhile, also, the job of school psychologist has evolved into today's comprehensive meaning because of individuals who were bigger than their round of routines, because well-trained school psychologists had something to say about dynamics of personality, about child development, about learning, about social psychology.

The new conception of the school psychologist is that she, and less often he, should be a comprehensive person, competent to deal with many kinds of personal, social, and educational problems. This larger role has a bearing on the kinds of research which school psychologists undertake themselves and the projects to which they may contribute in cooperation with other investigators.

The points I wish to make on the role of the school psychologist in research have arisen from my observations as a visitor to a large number of school systems and state offices of education where I come as a test specialist.

Harold Seashore is Director of the Test Division, The Psychological Corporation, New York City. *Reported from* Exceptional Children, *XXV* (*December* 1958), 147–50.

It is plain to me that school psychologists should attempt to develop and participate in more interdepartmental research programs. There are schools in which research on basic problems of individual differences among children are conducted with no evidence that the school psychologists are involved. Research departments tend to concern themselves with large-scale surveys, such as city-wide achievement testing; school psychologists tend to work with children as problem cases. Yet, if research on the abilities, achievements, and adaptability of youngsters is to grow, school psychologists must escape this case orientation long enough to contribute to large-scale research projects. How to do this? There is no simple answer. But it is clear that at least the chief school psychologist in a system needs to be sufficiently sophisticated in the ways of psychological research to command a hearing.

As the school psychologist has emerged from a person with limited duties to one who is broadly trained, it follows that versatility in research training and variety of interests have increased. Any field of child life is a legitimate field for his research. We shall need to be tolerant of this variety of needs and interests. For example, the excitement about research on the emotional concomitant of poor reading should not blind us to the persistent need for solid improvements in the measurement of reading skills and in the development of teaching techniques in remedial reading which are not just clinical hand-holding.

But tolerance for and insistence on multiple approaches does not mean that every particular investigator can undertake researches on the whole face of a problem. Rather we want to promote the idea that *across our professional front* we want a collection of related researches which will assure better understanding and management of children.

COOPERATIVE RESEARCH

There is need to develop cooperative research on common problems across school systems. Even in large systems there are certain types of problem children which are so few in number that research on the problem area in that one system is inconclusive. For example, consider research in the educational and psychological diagnosis and training of blind children. If school psychologists in a dozen cities could work out a common design for research, it would be possible to compile data in sufficient quantity to provide definitive answers to important hypotheses.

Sometimes semi-isolated psychologists tell me that they do not engage in research because they are too alone, that no work of theirs could relate to the major research trends of the time. The psychologist who really wants to engage in research has several ways in which he can become associated with major trends. He can listen to discussion and read the current literature so that when large projects are announced, he can volunteer his participation; he can "buy in," so to speak, by doing a piece of the larger project. And, even though a psychologist may not be able formally to join a major project, he can select a few ideas from the larger study which merit smaller-scale elaboration. That is, as an independent, he can insure relevance of his work by doing highly respectable piecemeal work on some aspects of the larger project. Furthermore, if he does not have enough data in one year to yield sound conclusions, he can—if his problem is vital—set up a five-year cumulative study to attain his needed data.

Now let me propose a few specifics. First, an old field of research for new emphasis; second, a comment on our competence; and third, a plan for getting more help.

There is an increased opportuni-

ty in school systems for research on the educational and social development of the mentally retarded. Today social philosophy, educational viewpoints, and public laws have changed and the local school is expected to retain in the community systems many children who a decade or more ago would not have been accepted as pupils. Concerning these children, we are much too ill-informed on the ways to teach, what to teach, and what progress to expect. It may well be that the medico-psychological researches in mental deficiency will remain concentrated in institutions, but the psycho-educational load is clearly on the public schools. The problem of the mentally retarded is our immediate one; we cannot avoid it.

GOOD HOUSEKEEPING NEEDED

One point I want to make is a really down-to-earth one. It refers to what one might call "research housekeeping." No matter how good a research idea is or how well the idea has been translated into a design, the research project can still fail because of poor housekeeping, because of poor selfdiscipline, and poor supervision of helpers on matters of collecting, recording, storing, and manipulating data. As a test publisher I see far too much of this. The cure resides in us. We must, first of all, be good planners so that we anticipate what is needed for a research to be meaningful and controlled. Second, we must be good clerks—be, in fact, a super clerk in those aspects of original data gathering which is our own immediate responsibility. Time does not permit me to relate a few dozen examples of research gone awry because of poor "research housekeeping" but I do not apologize for emphasizing a matter which, I am afraid, too many of us think below our own level of concern.

I do not want to end on this sour note of criticism of our own workmanship. Let me conclude with a positive idea.

It is possible to extend our research activities by harnessing the school psychologists and the university professors into cooperative teams. While it is true that many graduate students in the past have been able to conduct master's and doctoral studies in public-school settings, it appears to me that we need to encourage more intimate and extensive cooperation between universities and the practicing school psychologists not only for internships but also for research projects. If I were in a school, even a one-psychologist school, I would seek out opportunities for graduate students to help me extend my research interests; I would ask my school administrators to authorize a series of coordinated research projects on a reciprocal basis with a graduate department so that the interests of both the school and the university would be served. Some of the researches would be small, others would be pieces of a larger whole, still others could be fairly substantial. •

What Is the Effect on Other Children?

The Ripple Effect in Discipline

JACOB S. KOUNIN and PAUL V. GUMP

In The Elementary School Journal

DISCIPLINE is a serious concern of many teachers, especially beginners. The teacher who seeks help in discipline is likely to get advice that draws heavily on lore. The counsel may carry the name of a respected authority or the prestige of a widely accepted educational philosophy. But how much advice on classroom discipline, even advice offered under such auspices, meets the test of experimentation? How many widely accepted beliefs and practices have been upheld by careful research?

In Detroit, we are studying classroom management. In one phase of our study, we are paying special attention to the "ripple effect," or the influence that control techniques have—not on the children who are being disciplined—but on other children who are watching and listening.

Briefly, the problem may be put in this way: While the teacher is correcting Sally, what effect is the disciplinary measure having on Ruth, who is sitting nearby, taking in what is happening?

Answers were sought in the kindergartens of 26 representative Detroit schools. Fifty-one undergraduates served as observers and began their observations on the first days of the new school year. The observers were carefully instructed on their assignment. They were to note any incident in which a kindergartner watched the teacher correct another child for misbehavior. They were to report in detail on three phases of each incident: the behavior of the watching child immediately before the incident, the behavior of the teacher and the child who was being corrected during the incident, and the behavior of the watching child for two minutes after the incident. Four hundred and six such incidents were analyzed.

Jacob S. Kounin is Professor of Educational and Clinical Psychology and Paul V. Gump is Assistant Professor of Educational and Clinical Psychology, Wayne State University, Detroit, Michigan. *Reported from* The Elementary School Journal, *LIX* (*December* 1958), 158–62.

The children who watched while a classmate was being corrected responded in various ways. Sometimes they showed no reaction. If they happened to be drawing when a classmate was admonished, they simply continued with their drawing. At other times, children reacted sharply to the correction of a classmate. They lost interest in what they had been doing and be-

came worried, confused, and restless. At still other times, children responded with a special effort to be good. They stopped a misbehavior of their own, sat up taller, paid closer attention to the lesson, or tried in some other way to show that they were not misbehaving. Sometimes the correction had no deterrent effect whatsoever. Even though a child had just seen a classmate corrected for misbehaving, he launched some mischief of his own. And then, at times, children vacillated between conformance and nonconformance. During the two minutes after the teacher had corrected a classmate, they both conformed and misbehaved.

As an important part of the study, we related the children's reactions to the teachers' control techniques. Three dimensions of these were measured: "clarity," in which the teacher made sure that the pupil understood what was expected of him; "firmness," involved with how much "I-mean-it" the teacher packed into her admonishment; and "roughness," which described techniques in which the teacher expressed hostility or exasperation. There were, in this study, no extremely harsh techniques. No child, for example, was shaken or spanked.

It has been especially instructive to compare the effect of clarity and firmness on the various groups. Effects of clarity were obtained regardless of whether or not the watching child was associated with misbehavior himself. However, firmness affected only groups that had some connection with misbehavior. Now that the incidents analyzed in this research have been carefully studied, we can offer some findings which may be useful. To the extent that we can generalize on cause and effect, the study indicates that the reaction of watching children to a teacher's control of a misbehaving child is related to at least three factors.

THREE FACTORS INVOLVED

First, the newness of the situation. On the first day in kindergarten, watching children showed the strongest responses.

Second, the behavior of the watching children. Pupils who were themselves misbehaving or interested in children who were misbehaving were more likely to show the strongest reactions; the particular response was most likely to be vacillation.

Third, the disciplinary technique itself, that is, the clarity, the firmness, and the roughness of the technique.

When the teacher made it clear what behavior she objected to or what behavior she expected, the watching children responded with increased conformance and decreased nonconformance. If the teacher's behavior conveyed firmness, the watching children sometimes responded with increased conformance and decreased nonconformance. This reaction occurred if the watching children had been misbehaving or interested in

a child who was misbehaving. If the teacher used rough techniques, the children showed behavior disruption but not conformance or nonconformance.

It should be kept in mind that clarity in the teacher's directions led to greater conformance and less nonconformance in a new and unstructured situation. When children are new to kindergarten or to the teacher, they may be especially sensitive to his directions and desires. As the child feels more at home in kindergarten and more at ease with the teacher, we would expect clarity to be less important. Several studies are now in progress to check this expectation.

What meaning does the study have for teachers of children who are just beginning kindergarten? It is clear that a ripple effect does exist. What a teacher does to control children's behavior affects the children who watch as well as the children who are corrected.

The teacher who is interested in controlling ripple effects can generally do so best by giving clear instructions to the child rather than by exerting pressures on him. However, some intensity or firmness is effective if the children who are watching are themselves inclined to "deviancy."

The study does not support the notion that the teacher must "bear down" on the first day or "make an example" of a child. Such steps are not necessary to induce conformity in children who are entering kindergarten. Nor does the study support the contention that roughness and anger are simply firmness intensified. Firmness and roughness are different qualities. This has been confirmed by watching the different effects they have on the watching children. •

Discipline - with Aftereffects

• While visiting a country school, the inspector from the Board of Education became angry because of the noise in the next room. He opened the door, grabbed one of the taller boys who seemed to be doing most of the talking, dragged him into the next room, stood him in a corner, and said, "Now be silent and stand there." A few minutes later a small boy stuck his head in the door and asked, "Please, sir, may we have our teacher back?"—Harold Buchanan in *National Future Farmer.*

• When I discovered that one of my ninth-graders was well stuck up with bubble gum, I reproved him and sent him to the washroom to remedy the situation. As he left the class, came a voice from the rear, "Have gum. Will travel." —Charles C. Vorderberg in *NEA Journal.*

Relate the Present to the Past

Current Affairs and the Social Studies

J. D. McAulay

In Social Education

WITH news pouring from the radio and television in an ever-swelling flood, many teachers have concluded that it is no longer important to discuss contemporary affairs in the social-studies classroom. Why, they ask, should we take up valuable class time rehashing what almost every child already knows?

There is a positive answer to this question. The social-studies curriculum has a major responsibility for relating the present to the past. The social studies, perhaps more than any other subject in the curriculum, should provide a living link with the society in which the child moves and has his being. For this reason, it is difficult to see how current affairs in the community, in the state, in the nation, and in the world at large can be excluded from the social-studies program.

As far as current affairs are concerned, the social studies should seek to develop: (1) a continuing interest on the part of the pupil in what is going on in the world around him; (2) the ability to sift and sort the news in an effort to arrive at the truth; and (3) a sense of values that will enable him to separate the trivial from the important.

If there is any validity in what we are saying, the study of current affairs should be carried at every grade level, starting with the primary grades. And it is important at all grade levels to integrate the discussion of current affairs with other subjects in the curriculum—the language arts, science, and the social studies. If, for instance, pupils are studying a unit on Canada, they can be encouraged to set up a separate bulletin board with items clipped from newspapers and magazines—items about Canada's elections, recent discoveries of gold and other minerals, or any other current information about Canada.

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A CONTINUING PROJECT

But current affairs enterprises should, of course, involve more than the mere collecting of news for a particular unit. A current-affairs class itself should engage in a continuing project extending throughout the entire year. A sixth-grade class, for example, might concern itself throughout the year with news of the United Nations; another class might follow the prog-

ress of the St. Lawrence Seaway project. The clippings and news items dealing with the continuing project should be kept in a separate area of the bulletin board. The reviews, or summaries, of these continuing topics need not be as frequent as those given in connection with the individual units, but they are important for they serve to keep the complete picture before the class and to help keep interest alive.

A field trip to a newspaper printing establishment or to a radio station can be of great value to a current-affairs class. The children should be given specific instructions before the trip is taken to look for methods and procedures in the gathering of news as well as in the process of reporting it. A visit to the classroom by a newspaper reporter or a radio newscaster, who could discuss with the class the techniques of collecting and reporting news, might serve as an introduction to, or the culminating feature of, a field trip.

Having had such a close look into the business of securing accurate reports and presenting them in an interesting manner, the class should now undertake some reporting on its own. For example, a committee of students might visit the headquarters of the Community Chest Drive on the last evening of its campaign. This committee would secure facts and figures and report on the degree of success achieved by the campaign. The following day, the class could compare the committee's report with the one given by the press and radio. Such an exercise would give the class a better appreciation of current affairs and, perhaps more particularly, of the human factor behind the collecting and composition of the news.

USE VARIETY

There are many ways of presenting current affairs, and the class should be encouraged to use as much variety as possible. One week they can present their news by means of a "television broadcast." Another week a dramatization can be arranged. Pictorial representation through blackboard charts or murals can be utilized. The news can be mimeographed and copies distributed to all class members. Headlines can be printed and attached to the bulletin boards, with ribbons leading to detailed accounts of the headline event.

However current affairs may be taught, there must be some provision for periodic testing. The form of the testing may vary. It may take the form of a radio quiz, a crossword puzzle, a completion test, or an interpretive essay. Guided by the results of such tests, the teacher can determine the content and methods that best meet the interests and ability of the class.

The study of current affairs should help to bridge the gap between the classroom and the outside world. Good teaching can make the study of current affairs alive and meaningful. •

Do You "Work a Game to Death"?

Instructional Games

GUY WAGNER, MILDRED ALEXANDER, and MAX HOSIER

In Midland Schools

GAMES have many values and frequently play an important part on the instructional materials team, especially at the elementary-school level. And experience has shown that games will often speed up as well as strengthen learning in the fundamental skills.

Children, of course, need to learn how to work. And no teacher would even think of suggesting that skills should be taught only by the medium of games. Furthermore, no child expects all learning to be fun, and no child *wants* to play games all day long. But instructional games, judiciously used, will find children giving undivided attention to the task at hand. These games will facilitate learning for a pupil while rewarding him in terms of interest and a variation in what is sometimes monotonous routine.

A close examination of "games at work" will also show that children can develop selfesteem and gain group status through the successful playing of the game.

Good teachers have always lightened the day's work with games of some sort. Many of these games have had little relationship to the curriculum itself, but were used chiefly to provide a valuable change of pace, or "breather," in the day's routine. Many successful teachers have gone one step further, however, and used *instructional* games to give functional practice in some important learning skill. Some of these teachers have made a game file, including only those games which have been carefully analyzed and successfully adapted to the needs, abilities, and interests of a particular group of children. Adaptations can make games appropriate for several grade levels, or a particular group of pupils with their wide range of interests and abilities. One of the most useful attributes of instructional games is that of "mobility."

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Several other values of instructional games will become evident in studying the two games described here. These happen to be in arithmetic.

The game *Chalk Tray Race* is one which lends itself to many

adaptations over a large range of grade levels. One of its values is in providing necessary repetition in a purposeful manner. Its work is to maintain and strengthen initial learnings of the basic facts in arithmetic.

Flash cards of familiar combinations in addition, subtraction, multiplication, or division are propped up on the chalk tray. One child starts at the left end and another at the right end, writing the answers above each card. The player with the greater number of correct answers is the winner. Teams can be designated if the teacher desires. Legible writing and accurate answers should not be sacrificed for speed.

An illustration of a game which employs the kinesthetic approach to learning is *Rough Numbers,* used with primary children. Numbers are cut out of sandpaper and mounted on a sheet of construction paper. The player is blindfolded and tells what number he feels. Each number correctly given is a point for the player or his team. Teachers will find that many games can be adapted for rapid learners. For example, in this game, more able pupils might be asked to remember several numbers before telling the answers.

Each teacher who works with classroom games can see many possibilities to be gained by their judicious use. By sharing ideas for games, teachers can profit from each other's experience and knowledge. Many times a teacher may be aware of an excellent game that would be a great help to another. Some teachers seem to have a "knack" for locating good teaching materials and discovering productive teaching procedures. Other teachers are proficient in ferreting out published materials which are helpful. Still others seem to have techniques which encourage children to work on skills outside of school. And others "shine" in preparing game materials for children to use in their homes.

And so it goes—each teacher having some contribution which she can make. Every classroom teacher can be alert to the help that games give to the growth of children in the basic skills. Every teacher can also show a genuine interest in the games which children play.

It is obvious that successful teachers are guided by certain principles in their selection and use of instructional games. These principles will differ with each individual teacher but there are, it seems, some that are of paramount importance. The reader may wish to check his or her practices against the following guideposts:

GUIDEPOSTS

1. *Games must help in the achievement of classroom goals*: Pupils must understand *why* the game is being played—that the goal is *learning* and not just *fun.* They need to play the game according to the rules and to develop good sportsmanship. Games must never be used so as to build a feeling of

defeatism or, on the other hand, an attitude of smug superiority.

2. *The major justification for using a game is that it will help the children learn more efficiently*: Games should never be chosen at random but should enrich or give needed practice and interesting repetition to classroom learning. Games are intended to *reinforce*, not replace, work in the textbook. Rapid learners sometimes should be grouped together in playing games because this helps them learn more efficiently.

3. *Games should enlist mental activity and concentration for all participants*: Games which produce passive observation on the part of many players should not be used. Teachers can do much to help pupils feel that they are actively participating in the game. This can be done in a variety of ways, one of which is using the games to provide for selfcompetition.

4. *The teacher should be alert in determining how games can best be employed*: Teachers soon learn to avoid games which have long, complicated, or vague directions. They choose, instead, those which are effective for reinforcing a particular skill at a particular time and which can be easily and quickly explained. The successful teacher also learns to avoid "working a game to death," and stops playing the game while the children still have a desire to play. It is helpful to teach children *how* to join a game already in progress because this makes for efficient classroom routine. Adaptation of games for particular children or groups also contributes to their effective use.

5. *Game time is a "natural" for learning about children through observation*: When children are encouraged in their use of games, they display many glimpses of their nature which might not otherwise be evident. The observant teacher has many opportunities to note children's reactions to the several situations which confront them as they are playing any game. And the more "pictures" a teacher has of a child, the more effective will be her job in helping that child learn.

Good teaching will always mean alertness to better teaching tools and better ways of helping children. The choice and creation of quality instructional games means that another dynamic teaching tool is available—its proper use in the classroom assures us that there will be more effective learning. As one of the instructional materials team, games might well be given a fresh look and a fair opportunity to play their part in the ever exciting drama of teaching. •

A Noninstructional Game

"Let's play school," suggested eight-year-old Susie. "All right," grudgingly agreed her six-year-old sister, "but let's play I am absent."—From *Standard Practice*.

Don't Waste Time Teaching What They Know

What Words Should Children Study in Spelling?

JAMES A. FITZGERALD

In Education

THERE are notable differences in children's needs for spelling and great variation in their ability to spell the words they need at all levels of the elementary school. What words *should* children study?

The best research on child and adult writing indicates that the most fundamental words should be selected for spelling. Each child should be guided to study the words he needs for writing and cannot spell. Then, test. The next step is for the individual to study the words he has misspelled in the test and to become familiar with the other words he needs in writing.

What are the words most needed by a normal individual for life? In a careful survey of child letter-writing outside the school, of pupil theme-writing in the school, and of adult letter-writing in life outside the school, the overlap of child and adult writing has been determined. The most important basic investigations used for the determination of these words were Ernest Horn's classic study of adult writing, Rinsland's extensive study of school writing, and the McKee-Fitzgerald vocabulary of child writing principally outside the school. Other smaller but important investigations were utilized in the word selection and gradation.

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The 2650 words which were selected comprise a core of vocabulary useful to the normal individual for life. These 2650 most basic words and their repetitions make up about 94 percent of the running writing that children and adults use throughout their entire lives. These are the words a child should know because they are so highly useful in writing.

Several lists of words may be selected from this vocabulary, but only one can be presented here. This is a list of the 449 words considered to be the most useful core of words for writing. These words have, on the average, the highest credit ratings in the vocabularies from which they were chosen. Because they and their repetitions comprise more than 75 percent of the writing that ordinary normal people use, they should be considered for beginning spelling in the elementary school.

With the basic words selected, now we may ask the question: What words shall each child study? The following basic principle for

449 Most Useful Spelling Words

a
about
after
afternoon
again
ago
all
almost
along
also
always
am
an
and
another
any
apples
are
around
as
asked
at
aunt
away
baby
back
bad
ball
basket
be
because
bed
been
before
best
better
big
birds
birthday
black
blue
book
books
both
bought
box
boy
boys
bring
broke
brother
brothers
brought
brown
but
buy
by
cake
call
called
came
can
candy
can't
car
cat
cents
chickens
children
Christmas
clean
clothes
coat
cold
come
comes
coming
corn
could
cousin
cows
cream
cute
daddy
dance
day
days
dear
December
did
didn't
dinner
dishes
do
does
dog
doll
dolls
done
don't
down
draw
dress
dressed
dresses
drill
each
Easter
eat
eggs
eight
end
ever
every
everybody
eyes
far
father
fell
find
fine
first
fishing
five
flowers
football
for
found
four
Friday
friend
friends
from
front
fun
funny
game
games
garden
gave
get
gets
getting
girl
girls
give
glad
glass
go
goes
going
gone
good
good-by
got
grandmother
grandpa
green
ground
gym
had
hair
Halloween
hand
happy
hard
has
have
he
head
heard
help
her
here
hide
high
hill
him
his
home
hope
hot
house
how
hundred
I
ice
if
I'll
I'm
in
Indian
into
is
it
it's
jump
just
kind
kinds
know
last
late
left
let
letter
letters
like
liked
likes
little
live
long
look
lost
lot
lots
love
lunch
mad
made
make
making
mamma
man
many
marbles
March
may
maybe
me
merry
milk
mine
Miss
Monday
money
more
morning
most
mother
mother's
Mr.
Mrs.
much
must
my
myself
name
named
names
near
never
new
next
nice
night
nine
no
not
now
o'clock
of
off
old
on
once
one
ones
only
or
other
our
out
outside
over
pair
paper
park
party
pass
people
pick
picnic
picture
pictures
pie
piece
play
played
playing
plays
pony
present
pretty
program
put
rabbit
rabbits
radio
rain
read
real
recess
red
ride

right	side	still	then	until	when
ring	sing	stockings	there	up	where
room	singing	stop	they	us	while
rope	sister	store	thing	used	white
run	sisters	stories	things	vacation	who
said	sit	story	think	valentine	whole
same	six	suit	this	very	why
sand	skates	summer	three	visit	will
Santa Claus	skating	Sunday	threw	walk	winter
Saturday	sled	supper	through	want	wish
saw	sleep	swimming	time	wanted	with
say	snow	table	times	wants	won
says	snowing	take	to	warm	woods
school	so	teacher	today	was	work
see	some	tell	together	wash	would
seen	something	ten	told	water	write
send	sometimes	than	too	way	year
set	song	thank	took	we	years
seven	soon	thanksgiving	town	wear	yellow
she	spelling	that	tree	week	yes
shoes	spring	that's	trees	well	yesterday
should	started	the	turkey	went	you
show	stay	their	two	were	your
sick	stayed	them	uncle	what	

direction of spelling study should be emphasized: *A child should study in spelling the words which he needs for writing and cannot spell correctly.*

One of the most costly mistakes in the teaching of spelling is to "teach" all the children of a class the same words whether they know how to spell them or not. The difference in knowledge of the spelling of words varies greatly in a class. It is just possible that some members of a class may know how to spell all the words of an assignment and others may not know the spelling of any word of that lesson.

Children who read extensively and intensively learn to spell many words in their reading activities. Some children will know most of the words in a well-selected basic list, but others will require a careful, systematic testing and study program to master them. By testing, each child can become aware of words he knows and need not study. He can be guided also to recognize words he cannot spell.

The gifted child will need many words outside the basic core vocabulary. But the slow learner may require only 1000 words. Insofar as possible, such a child should be guided to study, with an effective method of learning to spell, the words he *does* need. If the learning of 1000 words is a major task for him, he should be directed to master the most valuable 1000—those words for which he has need in his writing. In guiding even the slow child, it must be remembered that it is a waste of time to "teach him again" whatever he knows. •

1959

With Education in Washington

THE EDUCATION DIGEST WASHINGTON BUREAU

Racial Integration.—At the end of 1958, United Press International made its annual compilation of the biggest news stories of the year. Two of these dealt with schools: the disastrous Chicago school fire was in ninth place; the continuing struggle over desegregation was first.

The surprising thing about first choice is that it dealt not with a single, notable news event but with a diffused, slow struggle. As UPI put it: "Integration confronted the American people with one of the most acute sociological problems since the days of reconstruction."

In late January and early February, with the beginning of the current semester, the story reappeared in the daily headlines following the collapse of Virginia's massive resistance.

The hastily drafted laws, designed to delay integration, had led to the closing of schools in Norfolk, Warren County, and Charlottesville. In January these laws were found unconstitutional by the Virginia Supreme Court of Appeals, and federal courts found the delaying maneuvers illegal as well. J. Lindsay Almond, Virginia's governor, switched from massive resistance to passive token integration, while Arlington county sent a last-minute appeal across the Potomac to Chief Justice Earl Warren. He promptly denied it and integrated schools opened.

Just below the horizon was the prospect of federal schools, a possibility mentioned by President Eisenhower in answer to a direct question about the education of children of some 5500 military personnel in Norfolk.

Arthur S. Flemming, Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare, flatly announced that the Navy would start an integrated school in Norfolk to take care of the 500 children of people actually living on the base, unless the regular Norfolk schools were in operation during the second semester. Federal funds would come from the existing federal-aid programs for federally affected areas.

With the reopening, on February 2, of Norfolk's public schools, the problem seemed to be solved, but leading federal officials are now on record as being determined to operate federal schools should this be necessary.

Dr. Flemming also said that plans are under way for legislation to provide an alternative for those children of military personnel not living on the base.

Federal Budget.—Things left out sometimes are more newsworthy than those that are mentioned. A case in point is the President's proposed new budget, known in Washington parlance as the 1960 budget and abbreviated to FY 60 or Fiscal 60.

FY 60, then, includes no funds for school construction nor for federal scholarships. On the other hand, Secretary Flemming said that a construction program was still being studied. If proposed, such construction would not involve any federal spending before July, 1960, because there is no request for such funds in the budget, the place where they should show if they were planned.

At the time of writing, the word is that there will be some kind of debt service or loan guarantee program to help states and local districts build schools; but there is little enthusiasm for this slow, complicated process of applications, followed by delay. It would mean the prospect of a very little federal help, about two years from now.

The budget also calls for a shot in the arm for the National Defense Education Act of 1958. At first, there were only $40 million to get the program started, with a possible $75 million more this spring as a supplementary appropriation. For 1959-60, the President asked for $150 million out of the $220 million authorized by Congress.

Other highlights from the budget request:

- $4 million more for the U. S. Office of Education, primarily to run NDEA and the many programs it calls for. Current appropriation is $8.8 million.
- $24 million more for the National Science Foundation for research grants, graduate fellowships, and institutes for science and math teachers.
- No significant change for the federally affected areas program (PL 815-874), now getting $181 million. This program includes approximately 4000 school districts with 1.5 million children whose parents work for the federal government or who live on federal property. (Norfolk is one of these districts; see above.)
- A cut, from $6 million to $5,150,000, for grants to states for rural library services.
- A small cut, from $33.8 to $32.6 million, for vocational education. Some action—and a lot of opposition as well—continues toward a possible shift of these programs to the states which would also receive the federal tax levied on telephone bills to pay for vocational and allied programs.

Congress and Loyalty.—A full-fledged campaign is building up against the disclaimer affidavit required by the National Defense Education Act. In its present form the act requires beneficiaries to swear that they are loyal, an affirmation considered unnecessary, ineffective, or insulting by various education groups.

Several bills for repeal of the oath have been introduced in the Senate and the House where they are given a fair chance. Sponsors noted with pleasure that HEW Secretary Flemming, a former college president, has expressed unhappiness with the oath.

Specialists Needed.—After a slow start, the National Defense Education Act appears to be working rather well. The U. S. Office of Education continues to have trouble finding the necessary specialists to administer the various programs, eight out of nine of which were in operation by February 1, with the last one—$6 million in loans for college students—allocated on February 3.

There also is evidence that the USOE wanted to play it safe so that it could not be charged with federal dictation, intervention, or inefficiency.

Because NDEA is a pivotal event in the financial development of American education, administrators and applicants seemed to be determined to make it work as efficiently as possible.

$145,000 *Libel.*—More than three years ago, in a nationwide radio broadcast, Fulton Lewis, Jr., criticized Pearl Wanamaker for her role in the 1955 White House Conference on Education; he confused her with another woman whose brother he claimed had fled behind the Iron Curtain and given up his U. S. citizenship; and he dealt with her actions as superintendent of public instruction for the state of Washington, where Mrs. Wanamaker had reversed the suspension of a school counselor who balked at questions asked by the House Committee on Un-American Activities.

Mrs. Wanamaker, a past president of NEA as well as of the Council of Chief State School Officers, sued Mr. Lewis in the District of Columbia.

On January 31, the jury awarded Mrs. Wanamaker $45,000 damages suffered as a result of the broadcast in the District of Columbia, with an additional $100,000 for damages from the network broadcast. The award is the largest ever made in D.C. Mr. Lewis has appealed.

New Book.—Admiral Hyman George Rickover is known as the father of the atomic submarine. To educators he is almost equally well known for his attacks on prevailing American curriculums, teaching methods, school standards, and his call for a more intellectualized education.

The Admiral, from his Washington office, has also called for massive expenditures, including federal aid to education, to finance the kind of educational effort he thinks necessary for national survival as well as for "the development of the highest level of intellectual competence" of slow learners, average students, and gifted children.

Admiral Rickover has made these points in a series of speeches. Last month they came to the fore again in a new book, *Education and Freedom*, which was praised by some, denounced by others, but left little doubt that the philosophy of life adjustment leaves him bitterly disappointed and that he considers it hopelessly out of date:

"English, foreign languages, mathematics, sciences, history, geography—these are the subjects which must be mastered . . . . Those who do not have the mentality to master all these subjects need the same kind of intellectual fare, only less of it."

This view alarms a good many educators who point to the Admiral's lack of familiarity with research findings in the behavioral sciences. They are willing to applaud his role as a naval officer and as an engineer; they grant his right, as a citizen, to speak his piece; but they worry about the implications of a philosophy which includes overtones of regimentation and suggests a neglect of skills needed by students to cope with the complications of life today.

New Headquarters.—The National Education Association last month officially dedicated its $7 million headquarters building. This was the largest and best known of several geographic changes in Washington. Earlier, the Association of American Colleges moved from historic Lafayette Square into new quarters, as did the Council for the Advancement of Small Colleges.

On March 1, the American Personnel and Guidance Association was scheduled to move into its newly purchased building, while the American Association of University Women officially broke ground for the construction of a building near the Potomac.

Future moves will include the Association for Childhood Education International which is currently raising funds for a new headquarters building.

Classroom Shortage.—In the fall of every year the states report their estimates of the classroom shortage to the Office of Education, which then publishes a summary, based on facts and supplemented by estimates. The latest compilation shows a shortage of approximately 140,500 classrooms. The comparable figure for 1957 was 142,300.

Actual classroom construction during 1957-58 came to 71,600, almost precisely the number needed to take care of last year's increase. This stems from a growing school population, and from obsolete and condemned units as well as other eliminations. The construction rate indicated by the figures leaves the backlog of unbuilt classrooms virtually intact.

Significantly, the reports from the states were compiled before the disastrous school fire in Chicago late in 1958. This holocaust produced a sudden outburst of inspections and a greater awareness of safety standards. In turn, this may lead to a spurt in the rate of condemnations, thus increasing the shortage of classrooms now partially hidden by continued use of buildings which do not meet modern building codes.

The USOE tabulation also showed a 1958 pupil-teacher ratio of 26.1 compared to 26.2 in 1957. •

• Educational News •

CHANGES IN SUPERINTENDENDIES:

Hawaii: W. H. Coulter has been named acting territorial superintendent, succeeding **Clayton J. Chamberlin,** who died in November.

Glen Cove, N. Y.: **Walter R. Smith,** superintendent since 1950, has resigned.

Waco, Tex.: **Avery Downing,** formerly assistant superintendent, is now superintendent.

Decatur, Ga.: **Carl G. Renfroe,** principal of Decatur High School, has been named superintendent of schools, succeeding **O. L. Amsler** on his retirement in June.

Cincinnati, Ohio: **Wendell H. Pierce,** assistant superintendent, will succeed **Claude V. Courter** on his retirement in July.

COLLEGE PRESIDENTS:

Sarah Lawrence College, Bronxville, N. Y.: **Harold Taylor,** who was named president 14 years ago when he was only 30, has resigned, effective June 30.

University of Tennessee, Knoxville: **Andrew D. Holt,** vice-president, has been named successor to **C. E. Brehm** on his retirement this summer.

Smith College, Northampton, Mass.: **Thomas C. Mendenhall,** associate professor of history, Yale University, will assume duties as president on July 1.

TEACHER-TRAINING INSTITUTIONS:

University of North Carolina, Greensboro: **Kenneth E. Howe,** director of graduate studies, National College of Education, Evanston, Ill., has been named dean of the school of education.

Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, N. Y.: **Stephen M. Corey** has requested permission to resign as dean in order to return to teaching and research. Dr. Corey will be on a leave of absence for the 1959-60 school year.

Western Reserve University, Cleveland, Ohio: **Wesley A. Erbe,** consultant in the Bureau of School Services at the University of Michigan, has been named chairman of the department of education.

University of Chicago, Illinois: **G. Ernst Giesecke,** vice-president of Texas Technological College, Lubbock, has been appointed associate dean of the new graduate school of education.

Ohio University, Athens: **Samuel I. Hicks** has been named head of the newly created department of school administration.

OTHER CHANGES AND APPOINTMENTS:

Frederick D. Eddy, associate professor in Georgetown University's School of Foreign Service, has been named a foreign language consultant to the U. S. Office of Education.

Mrs. Rollin Brown, Los Angeles, Calif., former president of the National Congress of Parents and Teachers, has been named chairman of the 1960 White House Conference on Children and Youth.

RECENT DEATHS:

James F. Hosic, professor emeritus of education at Teachers College, Columbia University and a founder of the National Council of Teachers of English, at the age of 88.

Cecil V. Millard, professor of foundations of education and former dean of the college of education at Michigan State University, East Lansing, at the age of 60.

H. S. Principals Meet

ANNOUNCEMENT of the retirement of Paul E. Elicker, executive secretary of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals for the past 20 years, was announced during the association's conven-

tion in Philadelphia in February.

Ellsworth Tompkins, present associate executive secretary, will succeed Dr. Elicker on January 1, 1960.

Principal speakers at the convention, attended by 4600 delegates, included Senator Hubert H. Humphrey; Harry C. Kelly, assistant director of the National Science Foundation; Erwin D. Canham, editor of the *Christian Science Monitor;* Lawrence G. Derthick, U. S. Commissioner of Education; and William C. Kvaraceus, director of the NEA's project on juvenile delinquency.

During the convention, J. Lloyd Trump, director of the Commission on Experimental Study of Staff Utilization in the Secondary School, presented the Commission's report. The basic change recommended in the report is that the present standard classes of 25 to 30 students be abandoned in favor of more flexible teaching arrangements ranging from groups of 100, to discussion groups of 10 to 15, and individual instruction. The Experimental Study Commission was appointed by the Association and work was carried out under a grant from the Ford Foundation.

Cliff Robinson, director of secondary education, Eugene, Ore., is the new president of the organization, succeeding George E. Shattuck, principal of Norwich Free Academy, Conn.

Moves to New York

THE Educational Television and Radio Center will move its headquarters from Ann Arbor, Mich., to New York City this month.

John F. White, president of the organization, in announcing the move, stated that present offices in Ann Arbor will be maintained for several phases of the operation, but the offices of the president, program department, development, and public relations will be in the Coliseum Building, 10 Columbus Circle, 58th St., New York.

The Center is network headquarters for the country's educational TV stations.

More Science Awards

APPROXIMATELY $13,500 in awards, double the amount given last year, will be offered to the nation's science teachers this year in the expanded Science Teacher Achievement Recognition awards program. The program is sponsored by the National Science Teachers Association.

The awards will be made to science teachers for reports of effective practices in the teaching of science, including details on how the ideas have been carried out. The top award will be $1000. The competition is open to all science teachers in public and nonpublic schools.

Mission to Russia

ENGINEERING education of sound quality is effectively integrated into the planned economy of the U.S.S.R. This was one of the major observations of an eight-man mission of U. S. engineering educators

who recently returned from three weeks of study and inspection in the U.S.S.R.

The mission was sponsored by the American Society for Engineering Education and the National Science Foundation with the cooperation of Engineers Council for Professional Development. Its chairman was Frederick C. Lindvall, chairman of the Division of Engineering at California Institute of Technology.

Media Research

APRIL 1 has been announced as the deadline for the submission of research proposals for the second evaluation by the New Educational Media Branch established by the U. S. Office of Education to approve research into the more effective use of TV, radio, motion pictures, and tape recording in education as provided by the National Defense Education Act.

The Advisory Committee of the New Educational Media Branch, which was set up in December, will meet March 5-6 to consider proposals submitted before Feb. 1. Proposals submitted between Feb. 1 and April 1 will be scheduled for evaluation at the meeting of the Advisory Committee on May 11-12.

Civil Liberties Research

A STUDY of "Integration and Academic Freedom" has been undertaken as the first project of a major program of research by the Arthur Garfield Hays Civil Liberties Memorial Program at New York University's School of Law.

The study will include an examination of state statutes that prohibit as a condition of employment in publicly supported schools, belief in or advocacy of racial integration, or association with groups or organizations that so believe or advocate. The over-all research program, according to Donald H. Wollett, director of the civil liberties program, will consider the question of what steps an individual can take against state action that abridges civil liberties.

The Arthur Garfield Hays Civil Liberties Memorial Program was established in 1958 by friends and admirers of the late civil liberties attorney.

AASA Meeting

APPROXIMATELY 20,000 educators attended the 91st annual convention of the American Association of School Administrators, held Feb. 14-18 in Atlantic City, N. J.

With its theme of "Education and the Creative Arts," the convention featured talks on and presentations of various art forms, including a concert by Van Cliburn; a modern dance program by Jose Limon and Company; and a concert by the Eastman Philharmonia, conducted by Howard Hanson.

Forrest E. Conner, superintendent at St. Paul, Minn., has been elected president-elect of the association. He will succeed to the presidency in March, 1960, succeeding Martin Essex, superintendent at Akron, Ohio, current president. Evart W. Ardis, superintend-

ent at Ypsilanti, Mich., has been named vice-president.

Comparative Seminar

TWENTY U. S. educators are participating in the first foreign seminar on comparative education for American school administrators. The seven-week seminar, being held in France and The Netherlands, will end this month. The U. S. Office of Education is administering the project under the International Education Exchange Program of the Department of State.

"Principal of the Year"

JOHN T. WARBURTON, principal of Grossmont High School, Calif., won the title of "Principal of the Year" in the first award of its kind made by the Arthur C. Croft Publications of New London, Conn. Nomination of Mr. Warburton was made by four teachers of his school.

Fitness for All

OPERATION Fitness, U.S.A." a nationwide crusade for the whole family, has been launched by a group of health, physical education, and recreation leaders with the blessings of two Eisenhower-appointed agencies on youth fitness.

Director of the program will be Louis A. Means of the California State Department of Education, who will direct projects from the Washington headquarters of the American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation.

As an opening phase of the program, seven states already have announced intention of administering the Youth Fitness Test battery on a state-wide basis. The states are Connecticut, Delaware, Florida, Georgia, Nebraska, Michigan, and Massachusetts.

Higher Education Convention

THE Race Against Time; New Perspectives and Imperatives in Higher Education" was to be the theme for the fourteenth National Conference on Higher Education, held March 1-4 in Chicago, Ill.

DATES OF THE MONTH:

Mar. 1-4, Association for Higher Education, Chicago, Ill.

Mar. 1-5, Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, Cincinnati, Ohio.

Mar. 9-14, National Art Education Association, New York, N. Y.

Mar. 23-26, American Personnel and Guidance Association, Cleveland, Ohio.

Mar. 31-April 3, National Catholic Educational Association, Atlantic City, N. J.

Mar. 31-April 4, National Science Teachers Association, Atlantic City, N. J.

DATES OF THE COMING MONTHS:

April 1-4, National Council for Teachers of Mathematics, Dallas, Tex.

April 12-18, National Library Week.

April 13-16, Department of Audio-Visual Instruction, NEA, Seattle, Wash.

April 22-25, American Industrial Arts Association, Long Beach, Calif.

June 28-July 3, National Education Association, St. Louis, Mo.

New Educational Materials

The American High School Today. James B. Conant. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1959. Pp. xiii + 140. $1.00, paperbound; $2.95, cloth.

This is Dr. Conant's long awaited report on his two-year country-wide study of American high schools. In it, Dr. Conant reaffirms his faith in the American public-school system; he expresses his conviction that our system of locally-controlled public high schools is basically capable of meeting the educational needs of the nation's youth.

Center of attention in the report is the comprehensive high school, which, Dr. Conant feels, has values that lie at the very heart of American democracy. He rejects any suggestion that we should organize our schools along lines followed in Europe.

Dr. Conant says: "I can sum up my conclusions in a few sentences. The number of small high schools must be drastically reduced through district reorganization. Aside from this important change, I believe no radical alteration in the basic pattern of American education is necessary in order to improve our public high schools." He makes one general criticism—the academically talented student does not work hard enough, is not being sufficiently challenged, and his program of academic subjects is not of sufficient range.

Dr. Conant then gives 21 specific recommendations for improving public secondary education. These include better counseling, a list of required programs, ability grouping, increased English composition, special consideration for very slow readers, diversified vocational programs for skills needed in the area, programs for the talented and highly gifted, reorganization of the school day, increased foreign language study, types of science courses to be offered, and requirement of a course on American problems or American government in the twelfth grade. Dr. Conant also believes that students should not be given a rank in class according to their grades in all subjects, which, he says, has led bright students to elect easy courses in order to obtain high grades.

Dr. Conant's study, which is to continue for at least another year, is financed by a grant from the Carnegie Corporation of New York.

Education and Freedom. H. G. Rickover. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co., Inc., 1959. Pp. 256. $3.50.

This book by Vice-Admiral Rickover is largely a collection of speeches made by him on education during the last four years. One thing is clearly evident from the book: the author is concerned with education, especially education of the talented, in our schools. Rickover's proposals to remedy the situation, however, are open to argument.

Admiral Rickover believes there are no real dangers in his proposal to isolate the intellectually gifted children from the mainstream of education and to teach them in separate schools. Many professional educators do not agree.

Admiral Rickover is a firm admirer of European and Russian systems of education, to which he devotes a good deal of discussion in this book. This admiration also is open to argument.

Like many educational critics,

Rickover believes most of today's problems in education are due to two things—John Dewey (progressive education) and the "educationist" (bureaucracy). One of the most promising developments, according to Rickover, is the Council of Basic Education, from which he quotes in many places throughout the book.

One of Admiral Rickover's theses in this book is that the school's concern should be with the intellect alone. "No substitute for a liberal-arts education has yet been invented that serves this purpose so well," he says. "English, foreign languages, mathematics, sciences, history, geography—these are the subjects which must be mastered. They are the intellectual tools that enable us to order our lives intelligently—and to understand the complexities of today's tense and uncertain world. Those who do not have the mentality to master all these subjects need the same kind of intellectual fare, only less of it."

Charles Van Doren said it in the preface: "This is a . . . . thoughtful book, and it is probably going to make a lot of people very angry."

An Introduction to Research Procedures in Education. J. Francis Rummel. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1958. Pp. xvi + 413. $5.50.

This book, written for graduate students and others beginning a research career, presents the nature of scientific research, using the principles of problem solving as the basic method rather than the conventional method of describing methods of research as isolated procedures applicable only to specific aspects of the problem.

The author, who is associate professor of education at the University of Oregon, explains as simply as possible a number of general principles, techniques, and guides for procedures which successful investigators in various fields of science have found helpful. Included in the volume is a discussion of the use of electronic machines for the efficient processing of research data.

The Heart Is the Teacher. Leonard Covello with Guido D'Agostino. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1958. Pp. 275. $4.75.

Leonard "Pop" Covello has dedicated this book "To those who believe that the struggle for a better world will be won or lost in our schools." He made this dedication not for lack of many wonderful people in his life who would have been honored to have this book dedicated to them, but because many of the wonderful people in his life lived the dedication in their educational effort in New York City's East Harlem.

This is a true story of a heroic task to make educational institutions everyday, all-day community agencies, not just part-time temples where the faithful gather for rigidly prescribed periods of worship.

With Mr. D'Agostino, Dr. Cavello tells his story in warm, human terms, not the jargon of the pedagogue.

OTHER MATERIALS RECEIVED:

ELEMENTARY

Observing and Recording the Behavior of Young Children. Dorothy H. Cohen and Virginia Stern. New York: Teachers College Bureau of Publications, Columbia University, 1958. Pp. 85. $1.00. No. 18 in the "Practical Suggestions for Teaching" series.

Learning and Teaching Arithmetic. J. Houston Banks. Boston: Al-

lyn and Bacon, 1959. Pp. ix + 405. $5.95. Combines arithmetic content with teaching methods.

Physical Activities for Elementary Schools; A Manual for Physical Activities in the Health Education Program. New York: New York City Board of Education, 1958. Pp. 254. $2.00.

SECONDARY

Young Thomas Edison. Sterling North. **Great Days of Whaling.** Henry Beetle Hough. **Sailing the Seven Seas.** Mary Ellen Chase. **Gold in California.** Paul I. Wellman. **The Trail to Santa Fe.** David Lavender. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1958. $2.24 each. A new North Star Books series on famous events and people in American history, prepared for the junior-high and senior-high level.

Bookkeeping for High Schools; Course of Study and Syllabus. New York: New York City Board of Education, 1958. Pp. 111. $.40. Curriculum Bulletin No. 8, 1957-58 series.

GENERAL

Administration for Adaptability. (Revised Edition.) Edited by Donald H. Ross. New York: Metropolitan School Study Council, 1958. Pp. xx + 643. $12.00. Gives the results of 150 individual studies related to the question of why and how schools improve.

Asian Kit. A packet of source materials including pamphlets, maps, photographs, and reference listings on Ceylon, India, Nepal, and Pakistan. Available from the Asia Society, Inc., 18 E. 50th St., New York 22, N. Y.

School and College Teachers' Federal Income Tax Guide for 1958 Returns. Madaline Kinter Remmlein. Great Neck, N.Y.: Channel Press, Inc., 1958. Pp. x + 132. $2.50.

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The American Heritage Book of the Revolution. New York: American Heritage Publishing Co., Inc., 1958. Pp. 384. $12.50. A well-documented, beautifully-illustrated presentation of the American Revolution.

AUDIO-VISUAL

A Guide for Use with the Indiana University Film Series in the Area of Preparation and Use of Audio-Visual Instructional Materials. Bloomington, Ind.: Indiana University, 1959. Pp. 107. $2.00.

Audio-Center Model 12MH8, a phonograph designed exclusively for foreign language instruction. Permits student to hear himself speak as well as to listen to recordings. Available from Califone Corporation, Hollywood 38, Calif.

Starting and Building Your Filmstrip Libary. A guide available free from The Jam Handy Organization, Detroit, Mich.

Milton Cross Explains the Instruments of the Orchestra, Milton Cross Explains the Magic of Music to Children of All Ages, and Listen & Play the Piano. Three sets of LP records, each with manuals and game pads or guides. Available from Ottenheimer Publishers, Baltimore, Md. $4.95 each.

Educators Guide to Free Tapes, Scripts, and Transcriptions. (Fifth Edition.) Randolph, Wis.: Educators Progress Service, 1959. Pp. xiii + 229. $5.75.

Spring Publications . . .

SOCIAL ISSUES IN PUBLIC EDUCATION
John A. Bartky, Stanford University

THE TEACHER AND SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION
Jefferson N. Eastmond, Brigham Young University

the 3rd edition of
ANTHOLOGY OF CHILDREN'S LITERATURE
Edna Johnson, Professor of English, Emeritus, Indiana University, Evelyn R. Sickels, formerly of the Indianapolis Public Library, and Frances Clarke Sayers, University of California at Los Angeles.

Recent . . .

COUNSELING FOR PERSONAL ADJUSTMENT IN SCHOOLS AND COLLEGES
Fred McKinney, University of Missouri
584 pages 1958 $6.00

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